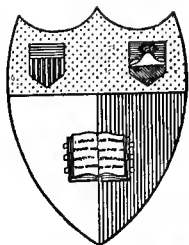


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# SECONDARY EDUCATION

IN VARIOUS EUROPEAN COUNTRIES  
AND IN THE UNITED STATES  
OF AMERICA.

BY

WILLIAM HARDIE, PH.D.

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MANCHESTER :

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## CHAPTER I.

### EDUCATION IN RELATION TO DISCONTENT.

THAT contentment proceeds from the satisfaction of desire is a philosophical axiom of undoubted validity. Not less true is the converse proposition that the feeling of discontent is due to non-satisfaction of desire. In each case the definiteness of the desire may be said to condition the character of the sentiment resulting from its satisfaction or non-satisfaction. Keen pleasure presupposes the existence of well-defined or intense desire. Vague contentment results from the satisfaction of hazy yearning. Similarly, vague discontent arises through lack of opportunity to satisfy ill-defined or latent impulses; sharp discontent, on the other hand, results from non-satisfaction of precise desire.

It is possible to remedy discontent in two ways, (1) by removing the desire by which it is conditioned, and (2) by providing opportunity for the satisfaction of that desire. An individual whose artistic faculties had been developed would, if compelled to devote all his energy to the making of bricks, experience discontent in direct proportion to the strength of his unsatisfied artistic impulses. Were he placed in an æsthetic environment, that discontent would disappear. It would also disappear, were the individual in question obliged to go on making bricks until his artistic sensibilities had become blunted, or until his æsthetic desires had burned themselves out for lack of fuel.

From the point of view of human development it must be preferable to remove discontent by the satisfaction of desire—especially if such satisfaction be made to exercise an educative effect. Desire usually connotes the presence of a certain degree of aptitude for its satisfaction, and the development of aptitude is the condition of human progress. The suppression or elimination of desire, on the contrary, destroys or impairs the aptitude, and consequently lessens the capability of an individual.

A person may desire to give his thoughts literary form, and may actually possess considerable aptitude, but, until that aptitude has been developed by practice and training, he will remain an

indifferent writer. If completely hindered from following his bent, he would probably experience a degree of discontent in direct proportion to the strength of his desire; if allowed to develop his aptitude by attempting to satisfy his desire, not only would discontent disappear, but he would experience the positive pleasure which proceeds from a consciousness of successful activity. At the same time the community in which he lived would be the richer for his developed faculties.

The same holds true of all occupations which allow scope for personal initiative and opportunity to place personal impress upon work. The development of aptitude resulting from the effort to satisfy desire, and the refinement of the perceptions which usually accompanies the development of aptitude, must be regarded both as the main conditions of human progress and as the most efficacious remedy for elementary discontent.

But "progress" is a conception devoid of significance except in relation to a determined starting-point, or a settled goal. What can be defined as the goal towards which humanity aspires, if not that vaguely set forth in the words: "The greatest possible happiness of the greatest possible number of human beings"? But happiness or contentment is essentially subjective. No man can with certainty decide as to the happiness of his fellow-creatures. They must be allowed to satisfy their own desires and to develop their own aptitudes—within the limits laid down by the society to which they belong. The task of society must be so to arrange those limits that no single section shall, in consequence of restriction, become sufficiently discontented to endanger the stability of the community as a whole. Where such limitations interfere with the satisfaction of justifiable desire on the part of any important category of citizens, it is time to inquire in what way they may be modified with the least ultimate danger to the social fabric.

A word of explanation with regard to the term "justifiable desire." It must be admitted that the desire to preserve their own existence is the fundamental sentiment of the majority of human beings. The extremest measures—such as under other circumstances would be accounted reprehensible—are universally admitted to be legitimate or justifiable in self-defence. The maintenance of life is thus the primary object or desire of a human being.

Without embarking upon a speculative enquiry as to the origin of the association of human beings called "Society," we may say that

such association unquestionably facilitates the maintenance of the many existences, and becomes increasingly valuable in proportion as it facilitates the maintenance of an increasingly greater number. The strength or value of society depends upon the strength of its members' will to associate,—upon the intensity of social impulse. But social impulse is usually weaker than the impulse to preserve individual existence, and if the two come into conflict the stronger impulse is apt to conquer. If the conditions prevailing in any society became such as to endanger the existence of any important category of the individuals composing it, the stability of that society would be in a precarious position. The sanction of any efforts to remove the cause of danger would be the tendency of such efforts to promote the stability of society by attempting to secure greater wellbeing for a greater number than formerly. It is evident, therefore, that from a social point of view legitimate desire is such as tends to promote the stability of a community as a whole.

Whether, under the conditions prevailing in modern industrial society, the existence of any important category of citizens is actually endangered, is a question upon which very different views are entertained by social philosophers. It would, however, be difficult to explain the antagonistic attitude of a large section of the working-classes to the present social order, or the establishment of the numerous charitable institutions, except on the assumption that large numbers of citizens are in danger of not being able to maintain a subsistence. There can be no doubt that in the case of unskilled labourers, whose only capital consists in muscular strength, competition arising from over-population and the effects of machinery will tend to produce want of employment, strikes, and industrial crises.

The same principle applies to other callings and trades, its validity lessening in direct proportion to the scope offered by them for personal initiative, and the satisfaction of individual desire. Thus, under existing conditions, a porter is more exposed to the above-mentioned effects of competition, etc., than an engine-driver, and an engine-driver than the manager of a railway. (This merely by way of illustration.)

The points now at issue are : (1) That, so long as a category of individuals is, through lack of craftsmanship, exposed to the immediate action of supply and demand, they will suffer from the

effects of periodic industrial crises, leading to strikes, want of work, etc.; and (2) That, as long as there exists in such individuals uncertainty as to their continued ability to preserve their own existences, discontent resulting from prospective inability to satisfy the fundamental desire of their being must prevail amongst them. But the unskilled workmen are not the only class perpetually in sight of this source of discontent. Many, if not most kinds of technical skill have, through industrial competition and the detailed division of labour consequent thereon, been degraded into easily-learned routines, providing little scope for the play of individual qualities and aptitudes. Not only are such *routiniers* exposed to the working of supply and demand in proportion to the simplicity of their routine, but the very sameness of their daily occupation, by leaving unsatisfied the desire for variety, and excluding the possibility of placing an individual impress upon their work, becomes in itself a cause of discontent.

As long as the elementary human desire to live is in danger of non-satisfaction, there can be but one remedy to the elementary discontent resulting therefrom:—feed the hungry; provide occupation for the unemployed; assure the weak and the aged against sickness and want. The discussion of schemes for the realisation of these desiderata will be touched upon later on. It suffices here to fix the principle, to point out the direction of progress. Much has already been done in Germany in the way of *Unfall*—, *Invaliditäts*—, and *Kranken*—*Versicherung*, which is undoubtedly a step in the right path. But the discontent existing at the present time cannot be said to be wholly or even mainly due to questions of the stomach. What is called “*staatsgefährliche*” discontent is to be found not among hungry masses clamouring for bread, but among more or less educated and relatively well-nourished individuals, conscious of an uncomfortable, and to them often inexplicable disparity between their intellectual and æsthetic desires, and the scope provided for satisfying them by their diurnal task.

Where lies the remedy for this discontent? What are the conditions for a satisfactory solution of the problem? What changes in State and society would such a solution presuppose? What efforts are now being made to find a solution by means of education?

The efficacy of education to supply a remedy for discontent might perhaps appear doubtful, were it not that increased mental

development is a postulate of all progress towards intelligent conduct. Such mental fitness is, however, only attainable by education. What indeed is the goal of education, if not improved quality of life for the individual, or, in utilitarian phraseology, improved quality of existence of the greatest possible number.

Civilisation, broadly considered, may be expressed in terms of qualitative consumption. Not *more*, but *better*, is the watchword of progress. The ex-Governor of German East Africa, Major von Wissman, complained recently\* that the fewness of the wants (*Bedürfnislosigkeit*) of the East African negro was the greatest obstacle to his becoming civilised. What but the difference in the quality of needs distinguishes the civilised man, who can appreciate a variety of well-cooked food, from the negro, who distends his stomach with rice to an extent limited only by its elasticity. The civilised man indeed consumes rice, but in small quantities, of good quality, and artistically cooked. The education and development of desire are the conditions of improved quality of consumption. Improved quality of consumption is the condition of improved quality of demand, which, in its turn, conditions improved quality of production of objects bearing the personal impress of the maker. In order to engender steady demand for improved quality of products, it is necessary to educate the faculty to appreciate such objects when produced, since such a desire is a correlative of faculty. He who feels ill at ease—that is, discontented, in a room furnished with common-place machine-made furniture, devoid of individual character; who is repelled by an unlovely wall-paper, or shocked by an ugly carpet,—such an one stands evidently on a higher plane of human sensibility than a man to whom such things are indifferent. He who can appreciate beautiful objects will desire them, and such desire is the basis of demand.

Machine-made products are necessarily impersonal, and are consequently devoid of artistic value. Now, the tendency of machine industry seems to be strongly in the direction of routine, and the tendency of routine-industry is towards the suppression of individual initiative and of competition—in short, towards monopoly. But monopoly is apt to become socially dangerous (when not, as

\* At a meeting of the “*Internationale Gesellschaft für vergleichende Rechtspflege und Volkswirtschaft*.” Held at Berlin, Oct. 21st, 1896.

in the case of the Prussian railways, controlled by the State in the interests of public welfare), and, in self-defence, it may become necessary to extend public control to monopolies, and to work them for the satisfaction of stable and regularly recurring social needs, *e.g.*, need of bread, water, light, matches, meat, etc.

I am no advocate of State interference for its own sake, only where it appears of social value as capable of hindering the anti-social oppression of one individual by another more favourably situated. Nevertheless, the tendency of machine-industry to-day seems to be towards centralisation and monopoly, some branches attaining more, and others less complete suppression of personal initiative and scope for the exercise of individual intelligence. The centralisation of industry is apt to diminish the number of workmen employed, and where that centralisation passes into complete monopoly, the diminution of labour is still more apparent. Were it possible to extend public control to such monopolies and to work them in the public interest, the labour-power thus set free might be educated in craftsmanship, and taught to produce objects needing more thought and skill than machine products. The education of such workers would be not only a gain to society, but it would provide the workers themselves with a means of obtaining a livelihood in a less unintelligent and degradingly monotonous manner.

Is such education in craftsmanship possible? It was possible in ancient Greece, again in Western Europe of the Middle Ages, and indeed, in most countries, before the simpler functions of industrial production were performed by machinery. It might become possible again; but to this end education in consumption is equally needful, which would react upon the arts of production. Nor would material education alone suffice; the idea of the advantages conferred on the individual by social institutions needs to be widely inculcated—as well as its logical and moral concomitant, that the individual owes to society devotion and the performance of duties in return for benefits received.

The generous impulses of men need development, though those impulses may be difficult to educate in a society where numbers are unable to satisfy even the elementary wants. The intelligence requires to be developed so as to appreciate the conditions and limitations of human existence, its fundamental needs, the possible lines of progress, and the signs of social danger.

Broadly speaking, the task of the educator must be the progressive refinement of the sentiments through the understanding. An endless task, a boundless ideal, it may be ; but one which must be faced. Pure conservatism means inaction and stagnation, resulting in impotence. Ignorance on the part of the masses increases the possibility of unreasoning action or of some gigantic social crime. The cry of economists and statesmen who have appreciated the conditions of social change, and recognise the imperative necessity of social reform, must be that of Goethe —“ *Mehr Licht*,” and it may be added, light as widely diffused and as well regulated as possible.

More light, to render clear the desirability of beauty even in common things, and the duty and pleasure of satisfying aspirations towards social usefulness ; to bring about a better understanding of civilised humanity and its aptitudes, a broader conception of social expediency, which resolves itself into social justice. Such education could but promote the development of a society made at once stable and plastic by the intelligence of its members, and rich in virtue of the attainments and capabilities of the individuals composing it.

## CHAPTER II.

### PRESENT CONDITION OF POPULAR SECONDARY EDUCATION IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

IN the following pages an attempt is made to describe the origin, development, and present condition of what may be termed the *Fortbildung* movement in various European countries and in the United States of America. It will be seen that the origin of the movement may be traced to different sources in the different countries; here, it is the Universities which initiate an extension movement; there, a private association gives the necessary impetus, which is taken up later by the Universities; while, in another case, the originating cause may be traced to a spontaneous movement among the people themselves.

The movement may be said to have commenced some fifty years ago, but it is not until within the last ten, or, in some countries, four or five years, that it has begun, by its rapid and general development, to attract the intense interest of all thinking men.

Although, in some countries, inexperience on the part of leaders, or want of funds, has at times hindered its progress, still, these difficulties have been invariably overcome in the sequel, and the movement has seemed only to gain fresh momentum from such temporary checks.

#### (1) ENGLAND.

The industrial revolution inaugurated towards the close of last century by the discovery by Hargrave of the spinning-jenny, followed by the development of machine production and the growth of the factory system in place of the system of house-industry, has necessarily been accompanied by great social changes. An article produced to-day by a series of machines was formerly the work of a single craftsman. Craftsmanship gradually declined as a demand arose for supervisors of complicated machinery instead of artisans and skilled craftsmen. Technical schools, until recently looked upon with a jealous eye by the working-classes have, under the stress of international competition, become a necessity of the times,

and as a result of industrial rivalry new fields of enquiry and enterprise are constantly being opened up. With the decay of the old craft-system, based upon guilds, and its gradual replacement by a factory system, the more or less independent craftsman of former times has to become a dependent factory hand. The factories being able to produce at less expense than the house industries have by degrees entirely supplanted them, except in the case of what is known as the "sweating system."

The growth of the factory system was attended by the massing of workers in certain centres, and by a rapid increase in the industrial population, partly as a result of increased demand for labour. This increase in population became periodically corrected through decreased demand for labour during times of trade depression caused by over-production. This decreased demand for labour, and consequent want of employment, checked over-population for a time through infant mortality and delayed marriage, accompanied by considerable suffering on the part of the working-classes. Discontent and class-enmity began to manifest themselves, and found expression in opposition to the new machinery, which was considered to compete too severely with hand-labour. Finally, the dissatisfaction of the working-classes assumed a political form and culminated in the Chartist Movement, 1834-48,—a movement accentuated by the high prices of food which had risen out of proportion to the wages earned.

*"Aber der Fortschritt der Industriethätigkeit hatte neben den Uebeln, die er brachte, auch sein Gutes. Die Presse und die Verbreitung billiger Litteratur trug dazu bei, ein besseres Verständnis für Klassenunterschiede zu befördern, und wenigstens die schädlichsten Formen der Industriesklaverei zu erleichtern. Und auch an Menschenfreunden fehlte es nicht, die die Sache des Volkes auf dem Katheder und in öffentlichen Versammlungen vertraten, nachdem sie dessen Bedürfnisse persönlich kennen gelernt hatten."*\*

By the Reform Bill of 1832, political power in England passed from the hands of the nobility into those of the middle classes, whose growing wealth and intelligence made this change inevitable, notwithstanding the strong opposition of the king and nobility. Shortly afterwards, permission was given by Parliament for the construction of the first railway in England. The press became

\* Dr. James Russell, *"Die Volkshochschulen in England und Amerika."* Leipzig, 1895. Page 10.

gradually more influential. In 1846 the Corn Law Bill was passed, whilst the growth of industrial as opposed to agricultural interests favoured the spread of free-trade ideas. The French and American revolutions, moreover, were beginning to make their influence felt in England, with their ideas of liberty and fraternity. In 1833 all slaves in British possessions were freed, and some thirty years later, after the American war, slavery in the United States was abolished.

In 1867 the second Franchise Reform Bill was passed, enfranchising working-men. Education now became a necessity in view of the danger of placing political power in the hands of uneducated masses. At this time the marriage registers were a proof that one-third of the men and one-half of the women of England were unable to sign their names.

In 1850, for a population of upwards of 18 millions, there were only 1,844 schools subject to Government inspection, and even these were but half-filled. Only 197,500 children attended schools, though accommodation existed for 371,000. The seven great public schools of England were so reformed in 1869, as the result of an enquiry by a Parliamentary commission, that their usefulness among the upper and middle classes was greatly extended. It was not, however, until 1870 that a complete Elementary Education Bill was passed. By this bill, elementary instruction was provided for every child in the kingdom. At the time of the passing of this law, all Church Schools that complied with the requirements of the Commissioners of Education with regard to size of schoolhouses, etc., were left undisturbed, the Government grant being made conditional upon the children attending these schools satisfying the Government school examination inspectors. Beyond this, another sort of school was instituted wherever necessary. In districts where Church Schools did not supply sufficient accommodation, School Boards were elected, and the expenses of schools under their charge were met partly by local taxation and partly by grant from the Imperial Government. This was the commencement of general popular education, although, at first, education was only free for those who were unable to pay.

By the law of 1889-90 further government aid was given, so that one may say now that elementary education in England is free for all. In 1870, there were nearly 9,000 schools, with a million and a quarter scholars; in 1890, 19,500 schools, with an average

population of upwards of 4,000,000 children. The School Grant in 1834 was £20,000. In 1864, it was £180,000, and in 1894, £6,500,000.

The above rough sketch will serve to illustrate how in England political, industrial and educational changes have acted and reacted upon each other, and have in the main tended towards national development. The pressure of democratic opinion upon legislation is demonstrated by the increasingly liberal character of laws, and by the gradual disappearance of measures designed to promote the interests of a single class. The movements for the Disestablishment of the Church ; for decentralisation of government—as shown by the constitution of County and Parish Councils, and by proposals for local option with regard to the sale of intoxicating liquors ; the agitation for the reform of the House of Lords, are all signs of the spread of 'democratic ideas. Nevertheless, an ignorant democracy can neither understand its needs nor minister to its own welfare. Yet, for good or evil, it now possesses political power. Merely technical education cannot enable it to form political judgments ; a secondary education is also required, such as may render it capable of forming intelligent opinions concerning its own immediate welfare and that of the State.

The agencies that have chiefly promoted the growth of Secondary Education have been four in number.

(1) The School Boards, which were created by the Elementary Education Act of 1870. They brought about the extension of the Parliamentary grant so as to afford a more advanced education ; later on, some Boards even established what were called Higher Grade Elementary Schools, which carried on the education of children beyond the standard fixed by the Parliamentary grant. These schools are supported partly by scholars' fees, and partly by the Science and Art grants, which will be mentioned again later. In 1894, there were in England 2,030 School Boards directing 4,352 schools, on whose books were 1,926,547 children.\*

(2) The second great agency has been that of the Science and Art Department. The grants made by this department, which is a branch of the Industrial Art School at the South Kensington Museum, began as far back as 1837, and have greatly helped to

\* See the *Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education*. London, 1895. Vol. I., page 10.

stimulate educational activity in Science and Art. The number of endowed secondary schools in connection with this department was 265 in the year 1894; while the number of organised science schools was 98. The expenditure of the department for grants to schools and classes in England alone in 1893-94 was £143,869 (exclusive of the payments for the teaching of drawing in elementary schools and training colleges). This sum virtually goes in aid of secondary education.

(3) A third agency has been that of those new institutions which have been created for the diffusion of higher education, and especially the new University Colleges, which have increased so rapidly within the last twenty years. In 1868, only three of the eleven English Colleges, which in 1891 were deemed worthy of a share in the Parliamentary grant of £15,000, had risen to the rank which all have now attained. Nearly all of those institutions (according to the Royal Commissioners' Report) have been making, and continue to make rapid progress, both in the number of their students and in the character of the instruction they provide. These colleges are open to both men and women.

The following is a list of the local Colleges in Great Britain of University rank :—\*

|                                                | Established. |
|------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| University College, London ... ..              | 1826         |
| King's College, London ... ..                  | 1828         |
| Owens College, Manchester ... ..               | 1851         |
| Durham College of Science, Newcastle ...       | 1871         |
| University College of Wales, Aberystwyth † ... | 1872         |
| Yorkshire College, Leeds ... ..                | 1874         |
| Mason Science College, Birmingham ... ..       | 1875         |
| University College, Bristol ... ..             | 1876         |
| Firth College, Sheffield ... ..                | 1879         |
| University College, Nottingham ... ..          | 1880         |
| "    "    Dundee ... ..                        | 1880         |
| "    "    Liverpool ... ..                     | 1881         |
| "    "    Cardiff † ... ..                     | 1883         |
| "    "    Bangor † ... ..                      | 1884         |
| St. David's College, Lampeter † ... ..         |              |

\* See "Eighteen Years of University Extension," by Dr. R. D. Roberts. London, 1891.

† These four form the University of Wales.

" In this connection may be mentioned the movement known as University Extension, which will be more fully described later. Lectures have been arranged for all over the country under the auspices of the Oxford, Cambridge, London and Durham Universities, and the Victoria University (established in 1880 by Royal Charter and Act of Parliament).\*

(4) The fourth agency to which allusion has been made has been that of the County Councils and County Borough Councils, created in 1888. By the Technical Instruction Act, passed in 1889, these Councils were empowered to levy a rate (not exceeding 1d. in the pound) for the support or aid of technical or manual instruction.†

These rating powers were however very little exercised, and probably technical education would have received but little impulse, had it not been for the funds made available by another Act passed at about the same time.

This was the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890, by which it was enacted that the residue of the money directed to be paid to local authorities from the National Exchequer in respect of the beer and spirit duties, might be applied to the purposes of technical instruction, by the County Councils and Borough Councils.‡ Out of the 49 County Councils in England, 39 are now giving all, and 10 are giving part of their grants to educational purposes, while of the 61 English County Boroughs, 57 are devoting all, and 3 are devoting part of the fund in a like manner. The County Borough of Preston is the only instance of an authority devoting all its grant to the relief of the rates. In Wales, where there are 13 County Councils (including Monmouthshire) all the grant (about £34,000) is being utilised for purposes of education.§

\* In 1880 the Victoria University was created with Owens College as its first College. Since that date University College, Liverpool, and the Yorks College, Leeds, have been admitted as sister colleges in the University.

† Report of Commission on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 12.

‡ The definition of Technical Instruction given in this Act was "*instruction in the principles of Science and Art applicable to industries.*"

§ "Eighth Annual Report of the National Association for the Promotion of Technical and Secondary Education." London, 1895. Page 5.

The Royal Commissioners appointed in 1894 to enquire into Secondary Education, point out in their Report the progress that has taken place since the "Schools Enquiry Commission" which was appointed in 1864. Among other features of progress, modern languages and literature are now being taught to a much greater extent.

"There has also been a remarkable and growing use in education of certain physical sciences, while technical and manual instruction has risen and assumed, especially in certain localities, what may in some respects appear to be rather large proportions. . . . The idea of technical instruction as a means for the formation of citizens capable of producing or distributing wealth, has taken hold, though in varying degrees of intelligence and intensity, of both our old Borough Councils and our new County Councils, and hence has come a concern for that kind of education, that we might otherwise have looked for in vain." \*

Another point is to be noticed if we compare the state of things to-day with that described by the Schools Enquiry Commission of 1864; and that is the swift growth in the educational functions and responsibilities of the State—a growth which has been of two kinds, legislative and administrative. This growth has been, however, neither continuous nor coherent; it does not present a series of logical or even connected sequences. Each one of the agencies whose origin has been described was called into being, not merely independently of the others, but with little or no regard to their existence. Each has remained in its working isolated and unconnected with the rest.

"This isolation and this independence, if they may seem to witness to the rich variety of our educational life, and to the active spirit which pervades it, will nevertheless prepare the observer to expect the usual results of dispersed and unconnected forces, needless competition between the different agencies, and a frequent overlapping of effort, with much consequent waste of money, of time, and of labour." †

The authorities connected with Secondary Education in England are of two kinds—central and local.

\* Report of the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education. London, 1895. Vol. I., page 16.

† Report of the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 18.

(1) The *Central* Authorities are—

- (a) The Charity Commissioners.
- (b) The Department of Science and Art.
- (c) The Education Department.
- (a) The Board of Agriculture.

(a) *The Charity Commission* manages and governs the general mass of charitable endowments, and also makes schemes for the regulation of certain endowments. About £650,000 a year is applicable to educational purposes, subject to the Endowed Schools Acts of 1869-74, and about five-sevenths of this sum have been dealt with by the Charity Commissioners.

(b) The operations of the *Science and Art Department* cover a much wider area than those of the Education Department and of the Charity Commission. They extend not only to Scotland and Ireland, but also, for purposes of examination to the British Colonies and Dependencies. The department has a secretary and permanent head of its own; it is still controlled by the Lord President of the Council and the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, but is otherwise independent of the Education Department.

In so far as there now exists any central authority for technical education, the Department of Science and Art performs that function. Thus, it has to decide on the qualifications of schools or institutions to receive aid from local authorities, and also to sanction subjects of instruction not specifically authorised under the Technical Instruction Acts. This is being done with a rather liberal interpretation of the term technical; for instance, the following are sanctioned as technical subjects:—the principles of banking and financial science; book-keeping; the principles of commerce; singing and musical notation; instrumental and orchestral music; political economy; seamanship; the science and art of teaching; veterinary science.\*

(c) The *Education Department* is connected with the Science and Art Department; it also receives the Endowment Schemes of the Charity Commissioners, and exercises jurisdiction over certain endowed schools. The Department is connected with the University Colleges by virtue of the Treasury grant which is made to them, and has a certain amount of influence over training colleges.

\* See Report on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 28.

(*d*) Under the Board of Agriculture Act of 1889, this Board may inspect and report on schools, other than elementary, in which instruction is given in agricultural subjects and forestry. A Parliamentary grant of £8,000 is also placed at its disposal for distribution among technical institutions. The services of the Board are also placed at the disposal of local authorities, for the inspection and furtherance of educational work connected with agriculture.

(2) Local Authorities. These may be classed under three heads :—

- (*a*) County Councils.
- (*b*) London.
- (*c*) County Borough Councils.

Besides these, there are also five other local bodies connected with secondary education : these are—

- (*a*) Governing bodies of endowed schools.
- (*b*) Managing committees of proprietary schools and of institutes (such as mechanics' institutes).
- (*c*) Local Committees under the Science and Art Department.
- (*d*) School Boards, in so far as the schools under their control give secondary instruction.
- (*e*) Managers of Voluntary Elementary Schools, in so far as such schools give secondary instruction.

The *Finances* available for secondary education in England are classified as follows :—

(1) *Endowments*. These amount to about £650,000 a year (without deducting cost of management of properties and other expenses) available under the Endowed Schools Act, 1869, together with about £100,000 not subject to this Act. There are also other endowments, the incomes from which are difficult to estimate.

(2) *The Science and Art Department*. The connection of this Department with Secondary Education depends primarily on the aid which it gives to the establishment and maintenance of science and art schools and classes, which may be held either in the day or in the evening. Besides this, the department also (1) awards medals and prizes for examinations; (2) gives scholarships, exhibitions, and free studentships, which are conditional in some cases on the raising of local subscriptions; (3) makes supplementary grants in certain subjects, and in respect of certain teachers or students; (4) gives aid to teachers in training at approved

colleges; (5) makes building grants and grants in aid of fittings and apparatus; (6) aids local museums of science and art.

The total amount of grants from this department in the year 1892-3 was £143,869, to which may be added the cost of examination, £21,635, and a contribution of £5,565 towards incidental local expenses, making in all £171,069.

(3) *The Board of Agriculture.* The total amount of the grant for agricultural instruction administered by the Board of Agriculture is £8,000, which is given mainly to institutions supplying the higher forms of agricultural education. These institutions include the University Colleges of Leeds and of Nottingham, the Durham College of Science at Newcastle, the Cambridge and Counties' Agricultural Education Committee, and the University Extension and Technical College at Reading. The range of subjects bearing on agricultural education is a wide one, including (*e.g.*) chemistry, physics, biology, geology, mensuration, surveying, levelling and book-keeping.

(4) *Funds available under the Local Taxation Act, 1890*, which amount to about £744,000 a year. In 1893-94 £531,630 was appropriated for education.\* The grants made under this Act to schools and colleges are of two principal kinds. (1) Annual grants for maintenance; such grants may be considered as more especially tending to encourage Secondary Education generally, rather than merely technical education in the narrower sense. Aid to grammar schools has been largely given in this form; (2) Capital grants, either (*a*) for building or (*b*) for equipment or maintenance.

The total amount expended in 1893-94 on technical instruction by the 48 County Councils was £391,589.† Excluding £74,620 or nearly one-fifth part, which was paid over to, and administered by Borough Councils or other urban authorities, we have a sum of £316,969 administered either directly by the technical instruction committees of the County Councils, or by district or local committees acting under their regulations and control.

Of this latter sum £188,755 was spent on technical institutes, schools of art, classes applicable to special industries, and other forms of "technical instruction" in its narrower sense; while £17,169 was paid to secondary schools, £39,475 towards scholarships and exhibitions, £13,922 to evening continuation schools,

\* Report of Commissioners on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 40.

† See Report on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 32.

and £22,781 was expended on special classes for training and preparing elementary school teachers to conduct evening schools. The remainder of the funds, £2,934, was spent in providing apparatus for schools and classes, and £31,933 in miscellaneous charges.

(5) *Rating powers under the Technical Instruction Acts*, which, if universally levied would produce £640,000 a year. In 1894, the amount levied was £14,902, which was employed for the purposes of technical education.

(6) *The Elementary Education Rate*, in so far as it contributes to maintain higher grade schools.

(7) The Parliamentary grant for Evening Continuation Schools, which in 1893-94 amounted to £91,540.\*

*London* occupies a special position under the Technical Instruction Act, being regarded as neither a County nor a County Borough. The London Technical Education Board, which has been invested with full executive powers by the County Council, is representative of all the principal public bodies doing educational work in the metropolis. It is of special interest as being the only example at present existing in England of a systematic local organisation for the control of Technical and Secondary Education. Its work is being carried on vigorously and is developing rapidly. Besides purely Technical classes, the Board voted in 1893-94 £12,215 towards the maintenance and equipment of Secondary Schools, and in the following year £8,500 for scholarships, a large proportion of which are tenable at secondary schools. Evening Continuation Schools are in London carried on by the School Board out of its own funds. The sum actually appropriated by the Board to technical instruction in 1893-94 was only £57,000 out of £172,759, the total amount of residue available. "It is probable, however, that year by year, as the work of the Board develops, the sums appropriated will steadily increase."†

Forty-four Councils devoted £60,145 to the purposes of agricultural education during the year 1894-95. In addition, 15 County Councils devoted upwards of £30,000 to capital expenses, while a sum of £4,000 was distributed to various institutions by the Board

\* See Report of Commissioners on Secondary Education. Vol. I., pages 39—40.

† See Report of Commissioners on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 37.

of Agriculture, thus making the total sum appropriated for agricultural education in England in one year £95,145.\*

The English University Colleges, which combine the faculties of a German or Swiss University, with those of a *polytechnicum*, educate managers and manufacturers; while the English polytechnics and technical schools, with their day-schools for lads and their night-schools for adults occupied during the day, educate foremen and workmen. The last-named institutions are now springing up rapidly with the help of the "spirit-money," while but meagre support is given to the institutions for the training of managers and manufacturers.

Out of the sum available under the Local Taxation Act ("spirit-money") about £600,000 a year is devoted to technical education, but only £23,854 was given to fourteen University Colleges in England and Wales in 1892-93 by 20 local authorities, in addition to a sum of £29,550 provided by the Treasury, of which nearly half (£13,306) went to the three Welsh Colleges alone.†

Among the larger of the University Colleges is the Yorkshire College, Leeds, which may be described in detail.

This College was opened in 1874, with the sum of £20,000, which had been collected by subscription. The aim of the new institution was declared to be "the supply of instruction in those sciences which are applicable to the manufactures, engineering, mining and agriculture of the county of York, and in such arts and languages as are cognate thereto." † The Clothworkers' Company, by their liberality, soon provided for the establishment of technical instruction in textile industries; and their grants made for building and other purposes up to the year 1895, amounted to £34,500, their annual contribution for maintenance being now £2,300. In 1877 the Drapers' Company commenced a grant (still continued) to make provision for instruction in the subject of coal-mining. In 1884 the Leeds School of Medicine was

\* See *Record of Technical and Secondary Education*, London, January, 1896. Page 12.

† See the *Record of Technical and Secondary Education*, London, July, 1895. Pages 407-9.

† See *Record of Technical and Secondary Education*, London, October, 1895. No. 20. Vol. IV., page 456.

incorporated in the College, and three years later the College applied for and obtained admission into the Victoria University.†

The number of students in attendance last session was :—

*Day Students—*

|                         |           |
|-------------------------|-----------|
| Arts and Science ... .. | 486       |
| Medical ... ..          | 201       |
|                         | <hr/> 687 |

*Evening Students* ... .. 399

Total ... .. 

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1,086

The College is managed by a Board of Governors, and an Executive Council. The teaching staff consists of 18 professors, 28 lecturers, 22 assistant lecturers and demonstrators, and 15 other assistants. The whole of the capital of the College, with the exception of the £34,500 contributed by the Clothworkers' Company, has been given or bequeathed by private individuals. The income of the College in the last completed year, apart from scholarship funds and from grants made by County Councils for extension lecturing, dairy schools, etc., was about £20,000. Of this sum, about the half was derived from students' fees; the remaining £10,000 includes £2,300 received from the Clothworkers' Company, £1,600 derived from investments, £1,400 from the Parliamentary grant to University Colleges, £800 from the Board of Agriculture in aid of the agriculture department, £950 from the Leeds City Council, and £850 from annual subscriptions. The expenditure of the College at the present time exceeds the income by more than £1,000 a year.

Besides the departments of classics, literature, history, biology, geology, mathematics, and modern languages, the curriculum also comprises the following departments especially concerned with Technical Education :—

- Chemical Department.
- Department of Physics and Electricity.
- Engineering Department.
- Coalmining Department.
- Sanitary Engineering Department.
- Textile Industries Department.
- Art Department.

† The other two Colleges which are incorporated in the Victoria University are Owens College, Manchester, and University College, Liverpool.

Department of Dying.  
 Leather Industries Department.  
 Department of Agriculture.

Certain of the evening classes are largely attended by artisans for technical instruction. Courses of study of various lengths have been arranged so as to meet the requirements of those who cannot dedicate the time necessary for a full College course.

The College possesses a considerable number of scholarships, which are open to students in the technical departments, and Leeds City Council Scholarships and free studentships have been instituted, which are tenable by day-students in the scientific and technical departments of the College.

The following scholarships are open to evening students in the scientific and technical departments :—

- (1) 75 Leeds City Council Exhibitions of £2 each.
- (2) 10 Leighton Exhibitions of £1 1s.
- (3) 10 Edward Baines' Scholarships, aggregate annual value £40.

The West Riding County Council also makes grants to the College to enable free courses of university extension lectures in coalmining and free courses of lectures in sanitary science to be given in various parts of the Riding. Six courses were delivered in 1894-5 in coalmining with an average attendance of 83; and twelve courses in the subject of sanitary science, with an average attendance of about 70. The West Riding County Council have also given assistance to the College for the maintenance of extension lectures in scientific subjects in general. Five of these courses were delivered in 1894-95.

A portion of the grant of £950 made in 1894 by the Leeds City Council to the College was employed to support evening lectures on scientific subjects in various parts of the city. Seven courses of such lectures were delivered, with an average attendance of about 170.\*

Such a College is therefore of great value not only on account of the education given within its walls, but as a centre for higher education to arrange for the institution and maintenance of scientific and technical lectures throughout a large district.

\* The above facts are taken from an account of the Yorkshire College, given in the *Record of Technical and Secondary Education*, for October, 1895. London.

Among the agencies contributing to Secondary Education in England, the University Extension System occupies an important position. The term "University Extension" had become current in England as early as 1850, but the movement as it is now known was not started until more than 20 years afterwards. Initiated by the University of Cambridge in 1873, it is now conducted by the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Durham and Victoria, and by the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching.

Lectures are arranged for all over the country, and a class is held after each lecture (or, in some cases, before it), in which the teaching is conversational and brings the lecturer into personal contact with his students. Weekly papers are also written, which are submitted to the lecturer for correction or comment. At the end of each course an examination is held by an examiner from the university—only those students being admitted to it who have satisfied the lecturer in respect to attendance at lecture or class, and in doing paper-work.

The unit adopted by the Cambridge University is a three months' course of lectures, one lecture being delivered each week. Arrangements cannot be made for less than the unit, unless it is to introduce or start a movement in a new place. The University fee for a three months' course of lectures is £45, while the local expenses for hall, lighting, etc., are about £20. In 1887, Cambridge University, in order to maintain a high educational standard in its University Extension Movement, adopted what is known as the *affiliation* scheme. By this scheme students who attend a course of lectures prescribed by the University for a term of three years, and then receive a certificate, may at any time thereafter proceed to the University and obtain its degrees with two years' residence instead of three, and are known as *affiliated students* of Cambridge University.†

The Extension movement was taken up by the Oxford University in 1878. One of the most important points of difference between the Oxford and Cambridge movement, is that while the latter will not make an engagement for a single course of less than twelve lectures, the former maintains courses of from six to twelve lectures, but certificates are not issued for attendance at courses of less than twelve lectures.

† Report of the U. S. Commission on Education, 1889-90. Vol. 2—Article by Seth Stewart.

The cost of the Oxford lectures ranges from £21 12s. for a course of six lectures to £54 12s. for a course of twelve lectures.

An important feature of the movement is what is known as the Summer Gathering. In the case of the Cambridge Gathering, invitations are only given to students who have proved their earnestness by obtaining certificates during the courses of lectures in the winter, and who desire to supplement their theoretical knowledge by practical work. Oxford, on the other hand, welcomes all who care to come, irrespective of particular educational qualifications, and whether university extension students or not. The courses of lectures are of general interest and designed to meet the most varied tastes.

The London Society for the Extension of University teaching was founded in 1875. At a public meeting held at the Mansion House on June 10th of that year, the following resolution was adopted:—

“That the principle of the Cambridge University Extension Scheme be applied to London, and the various educational institutions of the metropolis be requested to co-operate in an endeavour so to apply it.”

The principal educational institutions acceded to this request, and are represented on the Council of the Society. Furthermore, the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London appointed three members each to form a universities' joint Board to nominate lecturers and examiners, and undertake (in conjunction with the Council) the general supervision of the teaching, and thus give that university status to the work which the absence of a teaching university in London rendered necessary.

In the session 1893-94 more than 60,000 persons attended university extension courses in different parts of the country. It is estimated that from 10 to 12 per cent. of these were elder scholars in secondary schools.†

The University Extension Movement is interested chiefly in humanistic teaching. Certain scientific courses are given, and in a few instances technical courses in mining, land-surveying, etc., have been given to north country miners. In recent years the technical instruction committees of county and county borough councils have given certain grants towards the expenses of University

† See Report of Commission on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 55.

Extension lectures on scientific and technical subjects, and it is feared by some that the literary side of the teaching may suffer.

University Extension teaching has reached its most permanent organisation in the University Extension College at Reading, the Technical and University Extension College at Exeter, and the Technical and University Extension College at Colchester.

The Reading College was founded in 1892, largely through the instrumentality of Christ Church College, Oxford, which offered one of its studentships to be held by the principal. It is supported by grants from the County Borough Council of Reading, the County Councils of Berks, Hants and Oxfordshire, the Board of Agriculture and the Science and Art Department, as well as by private subscriptions. Many of its courses are examined, and some of its teachers supplied by the Oxford University Extension Delegacy.\*

During the College year, 1894-5, a course of twelve popular lectures delivered at fortnightly intervals throughout the winter was attended by an average of nearly 1,000 persons; five other public courses, each of twelve lectures, have been delivered on Greek, English and French literature, and History and Geography; while 620 students are reported as having been in regular attendance in the several departments of the College. The work is now to be carried on in four departments—the Literary and Normal Department, and the Departments of Natural Science, Agriculture and Fine and Applied Art. The Agricultural Department, in particular, receives very generous support, and in 1895 the grant of the Board of Agriculture towards the maintenance of this department was increased from £150 to £500.†

The technical side of the College is better supported than the University Extension side, the grants from counties, etc., being usually limited to technical education.‡ These University Extension and Technical Colleges are affiliated to the technical work of the municipal authorities with which they are in direct contact.

The Exeter Technical and University Extension College is in close relation to the University of Cambridge. The number of

\* See Report of the Commission on Secondary Education. Vol. I., page 56.

† See Annual Report of the University Extension College, Reading, for 1894-95. Quoted in *University Extension Journal*, January, 1896. London.

‡ See Report of the Commission on Secondary Education. Vol. V., page 303.

students is steadily increasing. In 1895 the number of class entries on the technical side was 516, and on the University Extension side 731. The corresponding figures in 1896 have risen to 700 and 858 respectively.\* The "Local Lectures Syndicate" of Cambridge guarantees part of the income of its principal, who directs both the technical and the university extension departments of the College.

The Colchester College was opened in October last, and in its scheme follows very closely that of the corresponding institution at Exeter. The central principle is the union of all the higher educational agencies of the town under one administration. The College consists of two departments, (*a*) a Technical Department, corresponding with the present school of Science and Art; and (*b*) a University Extension Department.

At the opening ceremony Lord Rosebery remarked that a purely technical course of study is not sufficient; if the mind is to be well-informed and the wits well sharpened, the training must not run in too narrow a groove. The aim of these new Colleges is to secure that, side by side with technical instruction, due attention shall be paid to those literary, historical, economic and artistic studies which, while valuable to the business man, are of supreme importance in the training of good citizens.

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\* See University Extension Journal, for November, 1896. Page 18.

Statistical Tables are appended showing the growth of the University Extension Movement in England.

LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY  
TEACHING.

| Year.           | No. of Courses. | No. of Entries for the Courses. | Average No. of Weekly Papers. | No. of Certificates Awarded. |
|-----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Oct.—Dec., 1876 | 7               | 139                             | .....                         | .....                        |
| First Year 1877 | 18              | 601                             | .....                         | .....                        |
| 1878            | 19              | 604                             | .....                         | 57                           |
| 1879            | 32              | 1,374                           | .....                         | 91                           |
| 1880            | 44              | 2,237                           | .....                         | 219                          |
| 1881            | 43              | 2,489                           | .....                         | 199                          |
| 1882            | 65              | 3,214                           | 610                           | 288                          |
| 1883            | 50              | 3,421                           | 625                           | 293                          |
| 1884            | 53              | 3,662                           | 625                           | 330                          |
| 1885            | 63              | 5,195                           | 803                           | 405                          |
| 1886            | 61              | 5,084                           | 806                           | 482                          |
| 1887            | 65              | 5,662                           | 868                           | 612                          |
| 1888            | 80              | 7,150                           | 1,204                         | 859                          |
| 1889            | 100             | 10,982                          | 1,882                         | 1,361                        |
| 1890            | 130             | 12,923                          | 1,972                         | 1,350                        |
| 1891            | 135             | 12,408                          | 1,827                         | 1,277                        |
| 1892            | 131             | 11,697                          | 1,729                         | 1,271                        |
| 1893            | 139             | 13,222                          | 1,913                         | 1,369                        |
| 1894            | 152             | 15,665                          | 2,186                         | 1,553                        |
| 1895            | 141             | 12,951                          | 2,046                         | 1,752                        |

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SYNDICATE.

| Year.   | No. of Courses. | No. of Entries for the Courses. | Average No. of Weekly Papers. | Number Examined. | Number who pass. |
|---------|-----------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1881-82 | 43              | 3,406                           | 822                           | 502              | .....            |
| 1882-83 | 63              | 6,274                           | 1,337                         | 906              | .....            |
| 1883-84 | 66              | 7,878                           | 1,649                         | 1,175            | .....            |
| 1884-85 | 73              | 7,259                           | 1,528                         | 1,093            | .....            |
| 1885-86 | 80              | 8,557                           | 1,893                         | 1,378            | .....            |
| 1886-87 | 100             | 10,494                          | 1,885                         | 1,341            | .....            |
| 1887-88 | 98              | 9,509                           | 1,975                         | 1,531            | ... ..           |
| 1888-89 | 89              | 9,295                           | 1,945                         | 1,420            | .....            |
| 1889-90 | 125             | 11,595                          | 2,458                         | 1,732            | .....            |
| 1890-91 | 135             | 10,947                          | 2,266                         | 1,547            | 1,450            |
| 1891-92 | 329             | 18,779                          | 3,860                         | 2,635            | 2,423            |
| 1892-93 | 223             | 15,824                          | 2,565                         | 1,881            | 1,730            |
| 1893-94 | 136             | 10,617                          | 2,085                         | 1,478            | 1,420            |
| 1894-95 | 96              | 10,338                          | 1,716                         | 1,292            | 1,222            |
| 1895-96 | 97              | 9,181                           | 1,487                         | 1,089            | 1,012            |

## OXFORD UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DELEGACY.

| Year.   | No. of Courses. | Average attendance at lectures. | Average No. of Weekly or Fortnightly Papers. | No. of Students who passed the final Examination. |
|---------|-----------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| 1885-86 | 27              | Not recorded                    | Not recorded                                 | [record No exact                                  |
| 1886-87 | 67              | 9,908                           | .....                                        | .....                                             |
| 1887-88 | 82              | 13,036                          | .....                                        | .....                                             |
| 1888-89 | 109             | 14,351                          | .....                                        | (about) 1,000                                     |
| 1889-90 | 148             | 17,904                          | .....                                        | 927                                               |
| 1890-91 | 192 (a)         | 20,248 (1)                      | .....                                        | 1,181 (6)                                         |
| 1891-92 | 393 (b)         | 27,969 (2)                      | .....                                        | 1,885 (7)                                         |
| 1892-93 | 238 (c)         | 23,051 (3)                      | 2,714 (g)                                    | 1,295 (8)                                         |
| 1893-94 | 219 (d)         | 23,303 (4)                      | 2,123 (h)                                    | 1,168 (9)                                         |
| 1894-95 | 199 (e)         | 22,067 (5)                      | 1,939 (i)                                    | 969 (10)                                          |
| 1895-96 | 127 (f)         | 18,387                          | 1,480                                        | 804                                               |

(a) Inclusive of 25 Courses arranged by County Councils.

(b) Inclusive of 221 Courses arranged by County Councils.

(c) „ 74 „ „ „

(d) „ 58 „ „ „

(e) „ 38 „ „ „

(f) No Courses arranged by County Councils.

(1) Inclusive of 968 at Courses arranged by County Councils.

(2) „ 8,608 „ „ „

(3) „ 3,531 „ „ „

(4) „ 2,675 „ „ „

(5) „ 1,258 „ „ „

(g) Inclusive of 538 at Courses arranged by County Councils.

(h) „ 323 „ „ „

(i) „ 146 „ „ „

(6) Inclusive of (about) 80 at Courses arranged by County Councils.

(7) „ 865 „ „ „

(8) „ 326 „ „ „

(9) „ 242 „ „ „

(10) „ 84 „ „ „

## (2) DENMARK.

Strange as it may seem to many, it is to one of the smallest of the European countries we must turn for a new departure in education for the people.

The first *Volks-Hochschule* in Denmark arose out of the following circumstances. In 1844, Germany and Denmark were competing as to which language should predominate in Schleswig. On the 4th of July in that year, a largely-attended open-air gathering of Danish men and women took place on the Skamlingsberge, near the line which was drawn twenty years later as the boundary between the two countries. At this meeting, or "*Sprachenfest*," Bishop Grundtvig, a poet and patriot, aroused great enthusiasm by a passionate speech in favour of the preservation of the Danish tongue.

The direct result of this meeting was the foundation of the first *Volks-Hochschule*, which was opened at Rödning (Nord-Schlesvig) about four months later.

Bishop Nicolai Grundtvig was born in 1783, and had had his strong patriotic feeling stirred by the loss and degradation inflicted upon Denmark during the Napoleonic wars, which brought her into conflict with Great Britain. Through some ecclesiastical differences, his connection with the Church was severed, and he was able to devote all his time and energy to the realisation of his patriotic aspirations. Deeply conscious of the diminished prestige of Denmark among the European states, he set himself with poetic fervour to the task of developing the intellectual possibilities of his native land. A poet rather than a thinker, he was able to voice the semi-conscious aspirations that were struggling for expression in the minds and hearts of his countrymen, aroused by their deep sense of the humiliation inflicted on them during the first quarter of this century. Her surrender of Norway, and the tremendous blow dealt at her commerce through her defeats by Great Britain, had indeed reduced Denmark to an almost hopelessly inferior state. Grundtvig foresaw that her only means of retrieving her position was by making strenuous efforts to raise the intellectual status of the whole people, and thus to replace what she had lost in the way of commerce and prestige by an intensive exploitation of the national intelligence.

It must be admitted, however, that Grundtvig's ideas on education were rather too comprehensive to be easily carried out. His chief value was as an inspirer of enthusiasm in others for new forms of international education, which would render fuller and healthier the lives of the people. A large number of Debating Societies (Vortragsvereine), and Gymnastic Clubs (Turnvereine) sprang into existence as a direct result of his teaching.

His main idea was to replace the formal classical teaching of the grammar schools by the study of national folk-lore, poetry and history; considering that by the former systems the memories of the pupils were overloaded at the expense of the intelligence. By this change he hoped to arouse interest and a desire to learn, and at the same time to develop national feeling. He wished to keep the balance between technical and general (in the sense of humanistic) education, in order to prevent men from becoming mere machines on the one hand, and unpractical dreamers on the other. The people's lives were to be ennobled, without interfering with their general usefulness, and, above all, without rendering them discontented with their lot as hand-workers.

The *Volks-Hochschulen*, as founded by Grundtvig, were intended not only for the hand-workers and peasantry, but also for men who were ultimately to become clerks or officials. In the words of Dr. Edward Reyer, Grundtvig's idea was that,

*"alle Jünglinge, die auf die Hochschule kommen, schon eine Beschäftigung im Leben kennen, wozu sie Lust und Gelegenheit hätten, und die Hochschule müsse darauf hinarbeiten, dass ein jeder zu seinem Beruf zurückkehre mit erhöhtem Mut, mit aufgeklärtem Blick über die menschlichen und bürgerlichen Verhältnisse, um Anteil zu bekommen an all dem Grossen und Guten, dass bisher von dem Volke, dem man angehört, erreicht worden ist und in der Zukunft errungen werden wird."*\*

The second *Volks-Hochschule* in Denmark was established in 1850, at Ryslinge, a village on the island of Fünen, by Christen Kold, a "*Volksphilosoph*" and "*Menschenfreund*," who had prepared the way by holding in his house classes for young men and girls desirous of learning. He aroused their interest in Danish history and literature by readings from the best historical novels, etc. His

\* "*Handbuch des Volksbildungswesens.*" Dr. Edward Reyer, Stuttgart, 1896. Page 15.

school was at first a winter-school for men; twelve years later a summer-school for women was founded, and most of the later *Hochschulen* are arranged on this plan.

The great development in *Volks-Hochschulen* did not take place until after the Danish-German war of 1864, by which Schleswig was lost to Denmark. This fresh loss of territory stimulated the Danish people to further efforts in their struggle for freedom which had been going on since 1844, and greatly strengthened their feeling of national solidarity.

Between the years 1844 and 1894, 146 *Volks-Hochschulen* were opened in Denmark. At the present time there are 68 of these schools in existence, together with six agricultural schools, two gardening, one dairy, and one housekeeping school, which are acknowledged as entitled to State support, according to an Act of Parliament of 12th April, 1892. There are, besides, four *Volks-Hochschulen* which have not yet been acknowledged by the State, and another one is now in course of construction. (At Give.)\*

In the summer of 1894 and the winter 1894-95, the schools acknowledged by the State have been frequented by a total number of 3,261 male pupils and 2,469 female pupils—altogether 5,730. (The number of pupils in the year May, 1895—May, 1896 cannot yet be given.)

The total number of students of all schools, from the time when the first was opened in 1844, till May, 1896, cannot be given exactly; but according to Direktor Povlsen's calculation, it may be estimated at about 82,000 male, and 40,000 female pupils.

Seventy-five per cent. of the pupils attend during one winter; 20 per cent. during two; and five per cent. for a longer period.

All the pupils board in the schools, and thus pass their whole school-life with the teachers and their families, and their own comrades. The masters and their families are present at one or more of the daily meals; the pupils have also free access to the home of the superintendent and teachers. Direktor Povlsen remarks in this connection that he has always found the pupils display great tact in availing themselves of this privilege.†

\* For the later statistics regarding the Danish Schools I am indebted to the information kindly supplied me by Direktor Povlsen, of the Ryslinge *Volks-hochschule*.

† See *Oxford University Gazette* for September, 1894. (Vol. IV., No. 48.) Lecture by Dr. Povlsen.

The support of the State is given chiefly as assistance to pupils of small means. Consequently, the son of the rich farmer is to be found sitting side by side with the common labourer, both receiving the same instruction, and, what is more, brought to know one another.†

The subsidy of the State to the schools (and to the pupils and teachers) amounted in 1895 to about 324,000 *Kronen*. The distribution of the amount was as follows :—

|                                                                                                                                             |        |             |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------|
| (1) Direct subsidy to the schools                                                                                                           | ...    | Kr. 120,000 |
| (2) To pupils of small means                                                                                                                | ..     | „ 180,000   |
| (3) For books, apparatus, etc.                                                                                                              | ...    | „ 2,800     |
| (4) To the further perfection of the teachers at the courses (at Askov and the university) conducted by the high-school teachers themselves | ... .. | „ 6,000     |
| (5) To the State-conducted courses, to which permanently appointed teachers at the <i>Hochschulen</i> are especially admitted               | ... .. | „ 94,000    |
| The part of this sum which the teachers have received may be estimated at about...                                                          |        |             |
|                                                                                                                                             | ... .. | „ 8,000     |
| (6) To the inspection of the schools, about                                                                                                 | ... .. | „ 8,000     |

(Of this amount only Kr. 4,000 have been used.)

The subsidy granted by the Counties (*“Amter”*) in 1895 amounted to 11-12,000 *Kronen*.

As regards the standing of the students, two-thirds of them belong to the peasant-proprietor (*Hofbesitzer*) class, the remainder to the handworker and farm-labourer (*Hausmänner*) class. The number of those belonging to the poorer classes augments in proportion as the State grant augments.

Although, as has been seen, the schools are supported to a large extent by the State, they are entirely free from State interference, and are founded in accordance with the desires of the local population, being thus of entirely free and spontaneous growth.

† Dr. Povlsen says, “I have often seen the good effects of this in many parts of the country in the relations of farmer and labourer, master and servant.”

“In erster Linie erregt unsere Aufmerksamkeit die grosse Freiheit, Unregelmässigkeit, scheinbare Planlosigkeit, die bei Gründung, Erhaltung, Leitung aller dieser Anstalten herrscht. Da ist nichts von ‘Reglement,’ nichts von ‘Konzession,’ nichts von ‘Inspektion,’ und ‘Oberinspektion,’ wohl aber liest man von ‘Staatsunterstützung,’ die zum Teil recht reichlich ist, und neben der nicht selten noch eine Unterstützung durch das ‘Amt,’ d.i. den Kreis, hergeht. Die Anstalten sind sämtlich Stiftungen oder Unternehmungen einer oder mehrerer Personen, in letzterem Falle nicht selten Aktiengründungen. . . . Noch öfter gingen Schulen aus dem Eigentum von Gesellschaften in das einzelner Personen, meist des Vorstehers über. Man gewinnt die Ansicht, dass die unter diesen Anstalten welche sich bis heut gehalten haben, aus dem wirklichen Leben des Volkes heraus erwachsen sind. Es sind nicht Regierungsschulen, die gewisse Unterrichtsgegenstände oder gar Ideen, welche die ‘Regierung’ für dem ‘Volke’ nützlich und ihm angemessen erachtet, nach einem sorgfältig erwogenen Programm von einem gut gesinnten Lehrpersonal der erwachsenen Jugend zuführen wollen, mit der Nebenabsicht ‘gefährlichen Strömungen’ im Lande entgegenzuarbeiten. Es sind vielmehr ersichtlich Anstalten denen zunächst die Richtung der Person oder des Kreises, die sie ins Leben gerufen, den Stempel aufdrückt. Findet diese Richtung im Lande Anklang, so hält sie sich; findet sie keinen, so geht sie ein; leistet sie Gutes und hat sie viel Zulauf, so wird sie auf Ansuchen von der Regierung unterstützt.” \*

The schools are closed during the months of August and September, and for at least a portion of this time, the teachers assemble in Copenhagen from all parts of Denmark in order to take advantage of University Lectures. The teachers arrange among themselves the courses they would like to attend, and when a certain number have decided on a particular subject, they petition the professor with regard to it. I took the opportunity of attending one of those lectures delivered by Professor Höfding to about 100 men and women teachers, the subject being “*Sympathy as an Ethical Motive.*” The lecture was listened to with deep interest and evident appreciation. When we remember the fact that these teachers carry what they hear into the remotest country districts of Denmark, and impart to the rustic population ideas received at the intellectual centre of the nation, we must congratulate Denmark on

\* See Article by Prof. Martin Hartmann, in *Comenius-Blätter*, 1896. No. 1/2, page 12. “*Die Volkshochschulen Dänemarks.*”

having initiated a system by which the highest culture is disseminated through the land and brought practically to the doors of the whole of the peasantry.

It will be seen from the following List of Subjects taught in the Ryslinge *Volks-Hochschule*, that the education given is comprehensive and varied. Technical instruction and general culture receive about an equal share of attention.

#### RVSLINGE HIGH SCHOOL.

##### *School for Young Men—Nov. to April.*

|                                                      |                 |
|------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Danish ... ..                                        | 3 times weekly. |
| History of Denmark ... ..                            | 3 " "           |
| Writing ... ..                                       | 6 " "           |
| Arithmetic ... ..                                    | 6 " "           |
| General History ... ..                               | 6 " "           |
| Geography ... ..                                     | 4 " "           |
| Natural Science ... ..                               | 2 " "           |
| Physiology and Natural History ...                   | 3 " "           |
| Danish Ecclesiastical and Culture-<br>History ... .. | 2 " "           |
| Drawing and Landsurveying ... ..                     | 2 " "           |
| Writing and Bookkeeping ... ..                       | 1 " "           |
| Constitutional History and Law ...                   | 1 " "           |
| Agriculture ... ..                                   | 1 " "           |
| Gymnastics ... ..                                    | 6 " "           |
| Readings in the Evenings ... ..                      |                 |

##### *School for Young Women—May to August.*

|                                    |                 |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Danish ... ..                      | 3 times weekly. |
| History of Denmark ... ..          | 3 " "           |
| Writing... ..                      | 3 " "           |
| Arithmetic ... ..                  | 3 " "           |
| General History ... ..             | 6 " "           |
| Geography ... ..                   | 4 " "           |
| Natural Science ... ..             | 2 " "           |
| Physiology and Natural History ... | 3 " "           |
| Dennmark in modern times ... ..    | 2 " "           |
| Composition ... ..                 | 1 " "           |
| Gymnastics ... ..                  | 6 " "           |
| Needlework ... ..                  | 9 " "           |
| Readings in the Evenings ... ..    |                 |

It must be mentioned that the number of subjects taught in the schools is generally smaller than at Ryslinge. The customary subjects are History, Danish Language and Literature, Composition, Geography, Hygiene and Gymnastics. One hour a day is devoted to the last-mentioned.

During the five winter months (November to April) the schools are open to young men, who nearly all without exception live on the premises. The girls attend from May to August. The age of the students is from 18 to 25.

There are no Entrance or Final Examinations in connection with the Danish *Volks-Hochschulen*, and this is perhaps one of the greatest differences that exist between them and, on the one hand, the German *Hochschulen*, and on the other hand, the English University Extension System. Importance is not laid chiefly on the amount of exact book-learning acquired, as is the case when a final examination has to be worked for, but rather upon the development of the general intelligence and personal moral character. Their aim is to widen the mental horizon of the students by the opening to them of new fields of knowledge.

Direktor Povlsen, the principal of the Ryslinge *Hochschule*, informs me that religion is not a special subject in the Danish *Volks-Hochschulen*, but is taught indirectly by Christian example and by the influence of moral surroundings.

There is an interesting and important point to be noted with regard to the teaching in the Danish *Volks-Hochschulen* and in those based upon the Danish model (i.e., those of Sweden, Norway and Finland); and that is, that special care is taken that the students should not be rendered discontented with their position in life, but should rather be brought to a better understanding of the work they are engaged in, and thus led to take a greater interest in it. This is rendered easier by the fact that an extremely large percentage of the students are country-bred youths, whose vocation in life has been already decided, and who know nothing of the restlessness of large cities. About 60 per cent. of the Danish population belong to the agricultural class, and, as the number of large landowners is a very limited one (a result of the freeing of the peasants under Christian VII.), the majority of the farmers farm their own land, and are in comparatively good circumstances.

Owing to this fact, the *Hochschulen* of Denmark (and the other northern countries of Europe) are better suited to the existing

conditions than they would be in the more industrially developed countries, whose population is more largely manufacturing and trading than agricultural. In Germany, there are not many districts, and in England still fewer, in which the conditions are such as to lend themselves to the development of *Volks-Hochschulen* on the Danish principle.

In Copenhagen the only two schools that have been founded have failed. Here, as in other large towns, the socialistic element, so largely in evidence in our day, has to be reckoned with. In all the more developed industrial districts, where large numbers of men and women of the working-classes come together, we find an infinitely greater discontent with the social conditions than among the agricultural classes. This has its foundation in the fact, firstly, that the former class is "*besitzlos*," while the landowning peasant possesses something worth "conserving"; and secondly, that the workman living in town and in constant touch with so many of his fellows, sees and feels more keenly than the peasant the difference between the possessing and the non-possessing classes. He is, therefore, more suspicious of any means of culture offered to him, coming, as it does, from those in a social position superior to his own, and resents more especially anything in the way of so-called religious teaching.

In the Danish capital, however, a system of evening classes upon different subjects, in which the religious element is left on one side, and which are carried on somewhat on the principle of the English University Extension classes, has succeeded in attracting fairly large numbers of working-men and women. It would seem, therefore, that the masses of the people in towns can only be reached by a purely secular education, by which they are taught morality and religion (in the broadest sense of the word) indirectly, through the interest they are led to take in some particular branch of learning.

An important school for artisans in Copenhagen is the *Technical Society's School*, which was founded in 1843, by the union of several technical schools of earlier foundation.\* It belongs to a private society and aims at giving such instruction as will be of advantage to artisans and industrial workmen in their various trades. The school is divided into five departments, viz.:—

\* See "*Technical Education in Sweden, Norway and Denmark*." (Den Tekniske Undervisning i Sverige, Norge, og Danmark.) Copenhagen, 1895.

1. Evening School.
2. Day-school for builders and mechanics.
3. School for Painters.
4. Institute for Metal-workers.
5. Industrial Art School.

The number of pupils, which was 693 in the year 1843-44, rose to 2,048 in 1893.

(1) The *Evening School* is open from 1st Oct. to 1st July, from 4 p.m. to 10 p.m. The quarterly payment amounts to 6 *Kr.* for 12 lessons a week in Drawing; 6 *Kr.* for 6 lessons weekly of Mathematics or Natural Science; 4 *Kr.* for Bookkeeping. The subjects taught are Danish, Writing, Bookkeeping, Arithmetic, Geometry, Algebra, Trigonometry, Natural Science, Freehand-drawing, Geometrical Drawing, Perspective Shading from Ornament, Special Drawing for Carpenters, Masons, Joiners, Blacksmiths, Carriage-makers, Mechanics, etc.; Modelling in Clay, Ornamental Drawing; Chemistry, Physics, etc.

(2) *Day School*—open from 1st Nov. to 1st April from 8 till 2 p.m. Fee: 10 *Kr.* a month.

(3) *School for Painters*—open from 1st Nov. to 1st April. Fee: 10 *Kr.* monthly. During the months of December, January and February, pupils are taken at reduced fees.

(4) *Institute for Workers in Metals*—open from 1st Oct. to 1st May, from 8 till 10 p.m. On Sundays also from 10 till 1 a.m. Fees: from 6 to 10 *Kr.*

(5) *Industrial Art School*—open from 1st Oct. to 1st July from 8 to 2 o'clock p.m. Fee: 10 *Kr.* a month.

There are in Denmark a large number of evening and Sunday Schools for workmen, founded chiefly since the year 1850. At the present time there are about 88 of such schools in existence, and the total number of pupils in the year 1892-93 was about 9,000. These schools are the outcome of private initiative, and do not belong to the State, although they are in receipt of a Government grant. The provincial schools are under the supervision of a special inspector appointed by the Government, who is, at the same time, the Principal of the Copenhagen Institute for the training of drawing-teachers.

The schools are open for about 25 weeks in the year during the winter season. In some schools there are also forenoon classes for unemployed workmen.

The subjects generally taught are—Danish, Writing, Arithmetic, Geometrical Drawing, Elementary Freehand Drawing, Special Drawing. Some schools also give further instruction in Arithmetic, Geometry, Physics, Bookkeeping, and special advanced instruction in Drawing.

### (3) SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

Although the Swedish and Norwegian *Volkshochschulen* have had the example of the Danish to follow, there is considerable difference between the three. As was natural to suppose, a movement which has developed itself so freely from the people themselves has adapted itself to the *Volksgeist* of each country.

In Norway, as L. Marholm has remarked, there is no "*frohes Christenthum*" as in Denmark.\* The national character is hard and raw, the religious feeling is colder, and the Norwegian peasant concerns himself above all with political matters. There has been no awakening of the national feeling through national calamity, such as was the case in Denmark. The Norwegian *Volkshochschulen* are, therefore, less the outcome of a popular patriotic effort than of a hard-headed desire on the part of the Norwegian peasant to further his own interests.

To quote L. Marholm again:—"Die norwegische Bauernhochschule ist denn auch meist ein Ding das Nutzen thun soll. Die allgemeine Weckung mag gut genug sein, aber der norwegische Bauer versteht darunter doch mit Vorliebe die politische Weckung."

The first *Volkshochschule* was founded in Norway in 1864: in 1868 three were started in Sweden. Karl XV. was then on the throne, and during his reign many reforms were introduced both in the political constitution and in the way of industrial development. Representative constitution was inaugurated in Sweden in 1865, and in 1869 the triennial "*Storting*" in Norway was made annual. New railways and roads were constructed, liberal measures were introduced with regard to religious sects, and other reforms initiated, which, along with the increased circulation of printed matter prepared the way for the new educational movement.

In Sweden the farmer class represents 80 per cent. of the population. The *Volkshochschulen* are not attended by the poorest

\* See "*Vossische Zeitung*," 1892. Sunday Supplements, Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 10. "*Bauernkultur im Norden*," by L. Marholm.

of the peasantry, as in Denmark and Norway, but by a richer class of *Bauern*, who own the land they farm. The Swedish schools are less homely and genial than the Danish, and less "*mit Politik verflochten*" than the Norwegian. In Denmark and Norway the scholars are called "*Kerle*," in Sweden they are called "*Eleven*." The school fees are also higher in Sweden than in Denmark, and the pupils do not live in the schools, but find lodgings in the neighbouring hamlets. Only the richer can afford to live at the schools and eat at the table of the Principal. A few schools, however, are arranged on the Danish plan, and the students eat and sleep in the house; such is the case at Tärna, in Westmanland, at the *Bauernschule* conducted by cand: phil: Holmberg, to whose article "*Die Schwedische Volkshochschule*" in the "*Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen*," (Supplement, May, 1896.) we are indebted for most of what follows.

The pioneers of the movement in Sweden were certain farmers in Schonen, and the *Landsting* of Christianstadt, together with two members of the Reichstag, belonging themselves to the "*Bauern*" class. These gave expression to the sentiment that more education was required for the grown-up sons of the people, in order to fit them for the position of landowners and citizens.

"*Sowohl als zukünftige Landwirte wie als Staatsbürger bedürfen die jungen Leute einer höheren Bildung. Sie müssten auch auffrischen, was sie als Kinder in die Volksschule gelernt, aber gewiss zum guten Teil wieder vergessen hätten. Sie sollten eine Bildung erhalten, die nicht etwa sie abzüge von der Handarbeit, sondern sie dieser wieder zuführte, sie befähigte, mit grösseren Lust und mit grösserem Verständnisse sich ihr zu widmen. Eine solche Schule, müsse auf dem Lande, nicht in der Stadt liegen, denn die Schüler sollten nicht lernen, ihre gewohnten heimischen Verhältnisse mit den städtischen zu vertauschen.*"\*

It was, however, in Stockholm that the idea bore practical fruit. The editor of the liberal evening paper ("*Aftonblad*") proposed to study the question more closely, and through his exertions an enquiry into the Danish *Volkshochschule* System was started, the result of which was published in his paper and circulated all over the country. The question came to be earnestly discussed, and as a consequence three *Volkshochschulen* were founded in Sweden in

\* "*Die Schwedische Volkshochschule.*" By Theodor Holmberg. In Supplement, May, 1896, of the "*Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen.*" Page 46.

1868: at Hvilan and Onnestad in Schonen, and at Herrestad in Ostergötland.

At the present day there are 28 of these schools for young men and 13 for young women. About 900 or 1,000 students attend them annually, as against 5,800 in the Danish *Volkshochschulen*. Since 1868 the total numbers of scholars is 19,000.\*

The population in Sweden is much more scattered than is the case in Denmark, and there are large tracts of desolate country, although in proportion to the population, the mileage of railway is exceptionally large. Most of the schools, however, are in the richest and best cultivated province, Schonen, the earliest among those being "Hvilan" (*die Ruhe*) between Malmö and Lund, which was founded by Holmström, a teacher at the University of Lund, a well-known geologist in Sweden, who gave up his university career to work for the people.

A very conscious effort is made to balance the teaching that goes to forming character, and that which is directed to practical ends. The practical side of the education is used as a means of popularising the schools.

"*Soll die Schule Zuspruch haben, so muss sie ja das Vertrauen der Landleute gewinnen. Und das wird sie, wenn die Leute sehen, wie der junge Mann aus der Volkshochschule seinem Vater hilft bei Gemeindeberechnungen, bei amtlichen Schriftstücken, Eingaben an die Behörden, in der Buchführung, beim Entwerfe zu einem Neubau, einer Karte von einem Acker mit Drainanschlüssen, u. s. w. Die Volkshochschule muss nur nicht der Versuchung unterliegen, die unmittelbar praktischen Fächer zu stark zu betonen; die Volkshochschule ist keine Fachschule.*" †

The subjects taught are the same in all the Swedish *Volkshochschulen*—Swedish, History, Natural Science, Geography, Surveying, Map-drawing, Singing, Gymnastics, Slöyd, Arithmetic, Bookkeeping, Constitutional History, a certain amount of Political Economy, and frequent classes for practice in debating. Some of the practical subjects are changed in the girls' schools to washing, ironing, weaving, etc. The number of girls in attendance is much smaller than in the Danish *Volkshochschulen*.

\* Holmberg. "*Die Schwedische Volkshochschule.*" Pages 47-48.

† "*Die Swedische Volkshochschule,*" by Theodor Holmberg. Page 61.

The average age of the students is in the case of young men from 21 to 22, the girls being about 17 or 18. The entrance and school fees vary in the different *Län*,\* from 80 *Kronen* down to 50, 40, and even 20 *Kronen*, being lower in the girls' schools than in the boys'. Money is voted by the State to assist the poorer scholars, which is divided by the School Committee, according to the advice of the Principal. The Reichstag has allowed 15,000 *Kronen* for this purpose since 1883.

The schools also receive State support; in the case of "one-year" schools up to 2,000 *Kronen*; "two-year" schools up to 3,000 *Kronen*; with the stipulation that an equal amount be obtained from other sources. Besides being aided by the State, the schools also receive grants from the *Landsting*† and from the Agricultural Associations. These subventions, however, are not accompanied by any interference on the part of the State; the schools are allowed to develop freely. Their attendance is voluntary, and no examinations, either entrance or final, are required.‡

The Swedish Universities have instituted within the last few years a system of summer meetings on the plan of those held at Oxford and Cambridge. The first of these was held at Upsala in the summer of 1893, from August 14th to 26th. The sum of 3,500 *Kronen* was voted by the University to cover the expenses, and the meeting was a great success. Tickets for the whole course were sold at 10 *Kronen*, those for single lectures at 1 *Krone*. About 329 persons attended the meeting, the large majority being High School teachers.

In 1895, the Summer School at Upsala was attended by 483 persons, and the lecturing body numbered 30 eminent professors and teachers. Twenty-nine lectures were given, and two practical courses. Five lectures were devoted to "*Sweden in the 17th Century*"; four to Modern languages (French and English); five to Organic Life; 10 to various other subjects of a humanistic character, and five others to scientific subjects. The practical courses were an Ambulance Class, and one for beginners in English.||

\* Governmental district.

† Provincial Diet.

‡ Theodor Holmberg. "*Die Schwedische Volkshochschule.*" Pages 52-55.

|| "*Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen.*" Leipzig, Jan., 1896. Page 192.

In 1894, summer courses were also given at Lund, and the example was soon followed by Christiania and Helsingfors. At Lund about 200 persons took part in the meeting, and the total receipts from entrance tickets was 1965·75 *Kronen*. Seventy-nine lectures were given by thirteen university teachers. In 1896, a similar course was given at Lund, which lasted two weeks and was attended by over 200 pupils. The Upsala students have founded two Associations, called "*Heimdal*," and "*Verdandi*," the members of which give lectures in country towns, and circulate cheap literature for the people.\*

It is hoped that these popular University Courses may serve to bring the *Volkshochschulen* into closer connection with the Universities.

"*Jedoch nicht das ausserordentliche Interesse, das bei den betreffenden Sommerkursen sich zeigte, ist es, was am meisten zu bedeuten hat, sondern die Thatsache, dass durch das Mittel der Popularisierungsarbeit, wie sie von den Universitäten ausgeht, die Volkshochschulen dauernd mit den Universitäten in Verbindung erhalten werden.*" †

There are in Sweden three kinds of Agricultural Schools.

I. The *Agricultural Institutes*, of which there are two, the first founded in 1862 at Alnarp, near Lund, and the second founded in 1870 at Altuna, near Upsala. In these Institutes young men are instructed who are students or who have been admitted to the highest class of the public grammar-schools. They are also obliged to have been in agricultural practice for at least one year. This course lasts two years and is arranged in order that the *abiturients* may be able to manage a large estate as proprietors or stewards. The same instruction is also taken advantage of by young men preparing themselves to become teachers in agricultural schools of every grade, or to become State officials in connection with agriculture. There is also a group of agricultural experts in cattle-breeding, dairy-farming, draining, etc., who are paid partly by the Government, and partly by the landowner who employs them.

II. *Lower Agricultural Schools*. There are at present 29 of these schools, the first having been founded in 1870 and the last in

\* See *Comenius-Blätter*. 5/6, 1895. Article by Prof. D. G. Hamdorff in Malchin. "*Über den Stand der Volkshochschulen im Auslande.*"

† "*Die Volkshochschulen in England und Amerika.*" Russell-Beyer. Leipzig, 1895. Page 41.

1884. The Government allows them a yearly grant of 4,000 *Kronen* each. The pupils remain two years, working in the fields in summer and receiving instruction in winter. They do not pay anything for learning or board, and after their two years' course they are fit to be head agricultural labourers, foremen, etc.

III. So-called *Farmers' Schools*. These are now in connection with the *Volkshochschulen*, as a course for the second year. As all the pupils have been active farm-labourers before, the instruction is only theoretical. The pupils learn to scientifically and economically understand their work better than before.

Religious instruction is not given in any of the schools; but in the case of the *Volkshochschulen*, it often happens that the Principal collects the young men and women on Sunday evenings and gives a lecture on certain religious subjects.\*

#### (4) FINLAND.

There are in Finland at the present day 10 *Volkshochschulen*, which have been founded within the last eight years.† The University of Helsingfors has placed itself at the head of the movement, and the students have shown remarkable energy in holding lectures, publishing pamphlets on the subject, and raising money by means of Concerts, *Volksfeste*, Bazaars, etc. A certain number of students have visited Denmark in order to study the system there, and, thanks to their exertions, additional schools are about to be opened.

The *Landtag* of Finland did not fail to recognise the importance of the movement, and between the years 1891 and 1894, the sum of 30,000 Mks. was agreed to be devoted to its support. The Russian *Governor-General*, however, the Graf von Heyden, refused to sanction this expenditure, and the support of the schools has to be met by voluntary contributions, by grants from Town Councils, and by the money collected by various entertainments. The leaders of the movement are throwing themselves with ardour into the task, and it may be said they are proving equal to it.

The Russian Government looks with distrust upon the Finnish education movement, and while admitting the advantage of, and

\* I am indebted for most of the information with regard to the Swedish Agricultural Schools to Dr. Ribbing of Lund.

† Maikki Friberg. "*Die Volkshochschulen im Norden*." Berlin (Max A. W. Schultze) 1895. Pages 18—19.

even contributing to the maintenance of the technical faculties in the *Volkshochschulen*, it endeavours in every possible way to discourage general humanistic teaching. To such an extent is this the case that the *Volkshochschulen* recently founded have been called either *Agricultural Schools* (in the case of men's schools) or *Housekeeping Schools* (for women), thus implying their practical character, which is the only method of obtaining the permission of the Russian Government to found them.

#### (5) FRANCE.

The apostle of popular education in France was Jean Macé, the founder of the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement*," who died in 1894. In 1862, while teacher in a girls' school in Alsace, he founded the first village library in France; within two years, no less than 80 similar institutions were established. Macé succeeded in starting a Society for the promotion of this enterprise, which was fortunate enough to meet with the approval of Napoleon the Third's ministry, usually mistrustful of such movements, which they suspected of having political motives. In 1867, this Society was merged into the so-called "*Ligue de l'Enseignement*," which extended its functions to the arranging of lectures for the people. In the course of a month the membership rose to 4,800.

France was at that time poorly provided with elementary schools; 12,000 village communities had no primary schools which satisfied the requirements of the Government Act. The task of *Fortbildung* was therefore a simpler one than it is to-day; the teaching resolved itself into instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, or, in other words, it was only necessary for the teacher at the evening school to repeat what he had taught in the morning.

In 1870, the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement*" had established 59 branches in different localities; the number of members was 17,850, and the yearly budget amounted to about 88,000 frs. In this year, however, the war commenced and disturbed the progress of the work; while Alsace, the cradle of the movement, was lost to France. In October, 1871, efforts began to be made to re-establish the Society on a firm basis. A memorial embodying the desires of the leaders of the movement was drawn up with more than 1¼ million signatures, and brought to Versailles in a huge cart in 1872; a few months later the efforts of the *Ligue* were crowned with success.

Macé also established regimental schools and regimental libraries, in spite of much opposition at first from the Government. All the institutions founded by him obtained legal sanction.

Both Jules Ferry and Gambetta recognised the importance of Macé's work, and Macé was made a senator for life.

In 1889, a congress, called the "International Congress for the Advancement of Popular Education by means of Private Initiative," was held through Macé's exertions. Numbers of persons came to Paris from all countries to take part in the proceedings.

At the Congress of the *Ligue*, which took place at Nantes in 1894, the following resolutions were adopted :—\*

1. "*Die Erwachsenen müssen wenigstens soviel Unterricht erhalten, als für das Leben notwendig ist ; der Durchschnitt dieses Minimums ist zu erhöhen, indem man ihm, je nach den Verhältnissen, eine gewerbliche oder landwirtschaftliche Richtung giebt.*"

2. "*Die bereits bestehenden Kurse für Erwachsene sind vom Staate zu unterstützen.*"

3. "*In den Kursen für Erwachsene sollen Besprechungen und Vorlesungen vorkommen ; auch Experimente mit Projektionsapparaten werden hier gemacht werden können.*"

4. "*Die Kurse werden eine Dauer von mindestens vier Monaten haben müssen.*"

5. "*Die Unterweisung wird sich zu richten haben nach den Verhältnissen, in denen die Zuhörer leben, wobei die Form der Vorlesungen vorzuziehen sein wird.*"

6. "*Bei den zum Militär Ausgehobenen sollten die Aushebungs-kommissionen auf das Zeugnis, dass die Betreffenden die Kurse für Erwachsene absolviert haben, Rücksicht nehmen.*"

7. "*Die Soldaten sollten angehalten werden, sich über ein Minimum von Kenntnissen anzuweisen ; je nach dem Grade ihrer Kenntnisse sollten sie schon entlassen werden können, bevor ihre drei Dienstjahre absolviert sind.*"

Side by side with Macé's work, attempts were made to establish a system of popular lectures, somewhat after the English model, the object of which was to bring nearer together the "*monde du savoir et le monde du travail manuel.*" At the head of the movement were such men as Liard, Lavisé, Jules Ferry, etc. In Lyon,

\* See Note by Beyer, in Dr. Russell's book, "*Die Volkshochschulen in England und Amerika,*" to which I am indebted for the preceding facts regarding the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement.*" Leipzig, 1895. Page 108. Note 37.

Montpellier and Lille, students' associations have been formed with the object of providing lectures for workmen in the surrounding districts. They are supported in their efforts by the University and High School Professors, who often deliver free lectures.\*

At Lyon, an "*Association d'études et d'activité sociales*" was formed in 1894 by thirty or forty students, who have founded a popular club for workmen. The committee of management comprises both workmen and students; the consulting committee is composed of a University Professor of Law and a manufacturer. A considerable sum of money has been collected to meet the expenses, and the workmen pay a monthly subscription of 10 centimes. Meetings take place every Saturday evening, to which the wives and children of the members are admitted. At these meetings a lecture is first given on subjects as *The Care to be given to Young Children*, *Mutual Help*; *Co-operation*; *Russia*, *the War of 1870*, etc. Readings or recitations follow, interspersed with music, after which conversation, games, and reading are engaged in. These popular social meetings have met with the greatest possible success.†

Besides the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement*" there are now many kindred societies in France; among the most important may be mentioned:—

*Société pour l'enseignement élémentaire*; *Association Polytechnique*; *Association Philotechnique*; *Union de la jeunesse*; *Société Havraise de l'enseignement par l'aspect*; *Société nationale des conférences populaires*; *Société républicaine des conférences populaires*; *Société Franklin*; and many others.

Before the obligatory school law was passed in France, 1½ million francs were granted by the Government for the formation of "*cours d'adultes*," which, as we have seen, were then merely an extension of primary education, instruction being given to illiterate adults in reading, writing and arithmetic. After 1882, when education became compulsory, these classes fell from 36,000 to 7,000 in twelve years, as they became superseded by new primary schools.‡

\* See "*Zur Geschichte des englischen Bildungswesens*," by Dr. L. Fleischner. Hamburg, 1893. Page 39. Note 32.

† Edouard Petit. "*De l'Ecole au Régiment*." Paris, 1894. Page 61.

‡ "*De l'Ecole au Régiment*," by Edouard Petit. Paris, 1894. Page 8.

A Government decree of 11th January, 1895, re-organised the "*Cours d'Adultes*" on a firmer basis. By this decree a State subvention, which should not exceed the half of the expenses of the courses, was granted, under the condition that the commune should guarantee the amount necessary for lighting and heating. It was also decreed that money subventions, and gifts of books and other material were to be granted to such teaching organisations as desired to form "*Cours d'Adultes*."

In March of the same year M. Edouard Petit, who has long been known for his energy and enthusiasm in the cause of popular education, was charged by the Government with the mission of studying the question in detail in the various provinces, in order to discover the most simple and efficacious means of extending the education of the people beyond the primary schools.

In M. Petit's report, he testifies strongly to the general awakening of the desire for education and to the movement of public opinion, which, he claimed, was certain, working in conjunction with the impetus given by the *Décret* of 11th January, 1895, to bring about practical results in the near future. According to his estimate, it would not be too much to expect that in the school year 1895-96, ten or twelve thousand *cours d'adultes* or centres of popular lectures would be in working order throughout France.\* Thus, it is hoped, that not only will the 15% of "illiterates" that are still found among the French conscripts disappear, but that the education of the people may be spread and deepened far beyond the simple instruction of the primary schools.

One of the most successful of the French societies for popular education has been the "*Société Havraise de l'enseignement par l'aspect*," which was founded in Havre 15 years ago, with the object of extending the use of the magic lantern at schools and popular lectures. There are branches of this Society in 82 out of the 87 French Departments; the majority of the members are school superintendents and teachers. In August, 1895, a Congress of the Society took place at Havre, which was attended by 400 delegates, coming from all parts of France, from Tunis, Algeria, and even Egypt.

\* "*Rapport* de M. Edouard Petit à M. Poincaré, Ministre de l'Instruction Publique," etc. 23rd July, 1895.

Resolutions which were proposed by M. Buisson, the Director of Primary Instruction, and adopted unanimously by the Congress, emphasised the importance of the question of secondary education, as not only of pedagogic, but also of national and social interest. Such education should not be arranged by a central authority, but should be allowed to develop freely, and on the lines best suited to various localities; it might take the form of schools for illiterate adults or for children leaving the primary schools, or that of popular lectures, libraries, or reading-rooms, etc. Such an undertaking must depend chiefly upon private initiative; it cannot be altogether supported or organised by the State. The hope was, however, expressed, that a certain degree of pecuniary assistance from the State, the Departments and the Communes might be with certainty depended upon, to crown efforts already made by individuals or teaching societies. The Congress was closed by a discourse from M. Poincaré, then Minister of Public Instruction. He assured the Congress that the Government shared with the country the conviction that the education of the people ought to be one of the chief preoccupations of the nation; "*car le pays, comme le Gouvernement, voit dans l'éducation l'initiatrice du progrès, l'ouvrière de l'avenir, la régulatrice indispensable et souveraine de la marche de l'humanité.*" \*

At the Congress of the *Ligue de l'Enseignement*, held at Bordeaux in September, 1895, M. Léon Bourgeois, President of the Society, closed his opening address with these words:—

"*Messieurs, nous ne répéterons jamais assez que le problème social est, quoi qu'on fasse, le problème de l'éducation. Ouvrons de toutes parts, suscitons sur tous les points de la République des associations libres de patronage de la jeunesse: autour des écoles de la raison, créons les écoles du caractère, écoles pratiques de morale, de civisme et de moralité.*" (1)

The Municipal Council of Paris arranged a few years ago courses of History, Physics, Literature, etc., in the evenings for those workmen who might wish to complete the education they received at the primary school. The teachers are university men, and the

\* M. Poincaré at the Congress of Havre, 1895. See *L'Education Populaire. Documents Officiels.* Paris, 1896. Page 184.

(1) *L'Education Populaire. Documents Officiels.* Paris, 1896. Page 208.

scheme may thus be considered as analogous to the English University Extension System. (2)

The following statistics are given by M. Petit with regard to the popular libraries in France.\*

Communal Libraries, not connected with the schools, number 400.

The School Libraries, which are established with the help of the State, the communes and the teachers, have greatly increased within the last thirty years, as may be seen from the following estimate :

| Year.             | 1865. | 1869.  | 1877.  | 1889.  | 1894.  |
|-------------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| No. of Libraries. | 4,533 | 14,396 | 17,764 | 36,326 | 38,000 |

Popular libraries (secular), the result of private initiative, exist to the number of 1,500, 800 of them being military libraries.

The total reached is therefore 40,000 Libraries.

#### (6) BELGIUM.

The Universities of Belgium were among the first to follow the example of England in the Extension movement. In the year 1891, certain professors at the "State University" of Ghent† started an agitation for the establishment of popular lectures, and in the autumn of 1892 free lectures were commenced in a classroom of the University. The subjects were the literatures of various countries; twenty lectures being given on the literature of the Netherlands, and ten on those of Germany and England. Courses on Botany were also arranged for the summer months.

In March, 1893, a society was formed in Brussels for the extension of university teaching. One of the Professors of the Philosophical Faculty, M. Léon Lécère, had published an article

(2) *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*. Paris, Jan., 1895. Page 83.

\* "De l' Ecole au Régiment," by Edouard Petit. Paris, 1894. Page 45.

† There are in Belgium four Universities, two of which (Ghent and Lüttich) are so-called *Staatsuniversitäten*, and the other two (Brussels and Louvain) *freie Universitäten*. Brussels is Liberal, Louvain, Ultramontane. See "*Die Volkshochschulen in England und Amerika*." Russell-Beyer. Page 108. Note 36.

in the "*Revue Universitaire*" for January of the same year, warmly advocating the adoption of the English system. A number of high school teachers, students, and former students founded, in consequence, the above-mentioned society, which was called "*Extension Universitaire de Bruxelles*," and had for its object the arrangement of popular lectures and other means of broadening the education of the people. In the year 1893, twenty-five courses were given in thirteen Belgian towns to audiences numbering in all about 4000. The subjects were History, Sociology, Medicine, Veterinary Surgery, Crystallography, Common Law, Agricultural Chemistry. The courses consisted as a rule of six lectures, which were held weekly, and the audiences were composed of officials, teachers, young clerks, and a certain number of workmen. (About 100 of the latter attended the four Brussels courses.)\*

The method of teaching was almost the same as in England, that is, lectures and classes were held, but no weekly papers were required. In 1895, however, circulating libraries were formed in connection with several courses. The lecturers recommend books which may be read with advantage by the pupils, and these are collected and lent out. This has greatly encouraged personal work among the students, and many written exercises are now given in. If desired by the Local Committee, examinations are held, and prizes of books are awarded to the most meritorious.

In 1894-95, nineteen courses were arranged for by the "*Extension Universitaire*;" the number rose to 86 in the following year, 74 of them being delivered in French, and 12 in Flemish.

In the Report of a General Meeting of the "*Extension Universitaire de Bruxelles*,"—held at Brussels in February, 1895, we find the following expression of the aims of the Society:—

"*Die 'Extension Universitaire' wendet sich an das ganze Volk und nicht allein an die Arbeiter. Sie dient dem kleinen Bürger (à la petite Bourgeoisie), den Frauen, allen denen, die nicht den Unterricht der Universitäten haben geniessen können.*"†

\* See Article by Prof. Dr. G. Hamdorff, "*Über den Stand der Volkshochschulen im Auslande*," in *Comenius-Blätter* for 1896. Nos. 5 and 6.

Also "*Die Volkshochschulen in England und Amerika*." Russell-Beyer. Page 42.

† The Oxford University Extension Gazette, Feb., 1895.

In 1894, a new *Volkshochschule* came into existence, as a result of the attitude taken up by the "*Extension Universitaire*" to the new University of Brussels ("*l'école libre d'enseignement supérieur*") in declining to associate itself therewith. The new *Volkshochschule* received the name of the "*Extension de l'Université libre de Bruxelles*," and enjoys the support of the professors and doctors of the Brussels University, who are forbidden to take part in the work of the old *Volkshochschule*, owing to the independent attitude of the latter. The two societies now work side by side in Brussels.

The new *Volkshochschule* ("*Extension de l'Université Libre*") arranged in 1894-95 for 21 courses of lectures, which were delivered at 14 different places to audiences numbering some 3,500. In the following year the number of courses rose to 96, which were given in 27 towns, by forty-seven lecturers. Lecturers who do not belong to the Brussels University must submit the programme of their Courses to the Committee of the "*Extension de l'Université Libre*," to be examined and approved. The Courses consist of from three to 12 lectures, of which the first is free, and a small entrance fee required for the subsequent ones.

The following are some of the practical Statutes of the "*Extension de l'Université Libre de Bruxelles*" :—

Art I. :—" *L'extension est fondée sur le principe du libre examen. Elle a pour but la diffusion de l'enseignement supérieur ; elle organise à cet effet des cours populaires ; elle donne à ces cours un caractère exclusivement scientifique.*"

Art II. :—" *Peuvent seuls être membres effectifs les professeurs, chargés de cours, agrégés, docteurs spéciaux, anciens étudiants, et étudiants de l'Université Libre de Bruxelles, ainsi que les personnes appartenant au corps enseignant des instituts qui y sont annexés.*"

Art IX. :—" *Chacun des cours comprend de 3 à 12 leçons. La première leçon est gratuite, une retribution sera exigée pour les leçons suivantes.*"

The subjects treated during the academic year 1894-95 were:\*

The Steam Engine ... .. 4 lectures.

The Development of the Vegetable

Kingdom in successive geological

ages ... .. 6 „

\* See "*Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement.*" Paris. 15th Jan., 1895. Page 86.

|                                        |     |     |     |   |             |
|----------------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|---|-------------|
| Literary Naturalism                    | ... | ... | ... | 4 | „ lectures. |
| The Philosophy of Architecture         | ... | ... | ... | 4 | „           |
| Crystallography                        | ... | ... | ... | 6 | „           |
| Surgery before the introduction of     |     |     |     |   |             |
| Lister's treatment                     | ... | ... | ... | 4 | „           |
| Diseases of Infants                    | ... | ... | ... | 6 | „           |
| The Civil Code                         | ... | ... | ... | 6 | „           |
| Modern History—1789-1815...            |     |     | ... | 6 | „           |
| „    „    —1815-1852...                |     |     | ... | 6 | „           |
| Structure and arrangement of the Greek |     |     |     |   |             |
| Theatre                                | ... | ... | ..  | 6 | „           |

It will be seen that the education here is more on the lines of the English University Extension system than on those of the Danish *Volkshochschulen*. Belgium approaches more nearly to the condition of England with regard to density of population and industrial development. That is to say, the mining and industrial population far outweighs the agricultural. As in England, so in Belgium, the Extension Lectures appeal to very diverse classes, and, as the programme shows, an attempt is made to suit the varied intellectual demands of such mixed audiences.

Industrial and technical schools are generally established by communal authorities or by private societies, but, if subsidized by the State, are under the general supervision of the minister of agriculture, of industry, and of public works. They are classified as follows :—Superior School of Commerce at Antwerp (founded 1852) ; provincial School of Hainaut at Mons (1837) ; industrial schools ; apprenticeship schools (*ateliers d'apprentissage* ; ) professional schools and courses ; schools of domestic economy and housework for girls. The industrial schools are characterised in official reports as schools intended “to give the workman scientific instruction which he is unable to obtain in the workshop ; to procure for him the means of improving his material condition and of developing his intelligence ; to lead him gradually away from the tyranny of routine, and to increase the economic value of his labour, and thus to enable him to contribute to increased production for his own good and for the national benefit.”\*

\* See “Report of the U.S. Commissioner on Education, 1892-93.” (Washington, 1895.) Page 186.

These schools are supported mainly by Government and municipal grants. Tuition is free. The lectures are generally given in the evenings and on Sunday morning, although several schools have also day courses. The courses are not uniform, being determined on the technical side by the requirements of local industries. The general course comprises the French language, or Flemish, according to the geographical location of the schools; mathematics in its application to industry; physics, theoretical and applied; chemistry, general and applied; mechanics, hygiene, industrial economy, and drawing. The last-named is the basis of the instruction.

Pupils are admitted generally at 14 years of age; they must know how to read and write and the four rules of arithmetic.

Apprenticeship schools (*ateliers d'apprentissage*) were founded in 1817, having been intended for the benefit of indigent artisans. In 1840 they were recognised as a legitimate object of communal and State support. They were brought under State inspection in 1849.

The professional (technical) schools and courses include a number of highly developed apprenticeship schools of weaving in the Flemish provinces, and similar schools established in other provinces in the interest of specific industries, such as telegraphy, printing, tailoring, carpentry, etc. Technical schools for the benefit of young women have been established in several towns, and courses less extensive in a few small communes.

The Superior School of Commerce at Antwerp had in 1890 an attendance of 141 pupils, and an income of 77,943frs., of which 56·7 per cent. came from the State, and from the municipality 18 per cent. The remainder was from balances of the previous year and from private sources.

The Provincial School of Mines of Hainaut had in 1890 an attendance of 91 pupils and an income of 62,452frs., of which the State furnished 32 per cent., the province 43 per cent., and the commune (Mons) 15 per cent., leaving a small balance derived from other sources.

The 37 apprenticeship schools enrolled 1,020 pupils (938 boys; 82 girls) and had an income of 68,472frs., derived as follows:—From the State, 54 per cent.; provinces, 14·8; communes, 27; other sources, 4·2 per cent.\*

\* Report of United States Commission on Education, 1892-93. (Washington, 1895.) Page 192.

## (7) AUSTRIA.

Between the years 1869 and 1886 various "*Volksbildungsvereine*" were established in Austria, of which by far the most successful has been the *Wiener Verein*, founded in 1886. Its income, which in its earlier years amounted to some 4,000 fl. rose to 16,000 fl. in 1893 and 20,000 fl. in 1895.\*

Besides instituting courses of free lectures and arranging *Volkskonzerte* and Recitations, the Vienna Society has also shown remarkable activity in the founding of *Volksbibliotheken*, *Freilesehallen*, Cookery and Housekeeping-schools, etc.

The progress of the movement will be seen from the following table, taken from Dr. Eduard Reyer's book :—

| Winter Semester.                         | 1887-8. | 1888-9. | 1889-90. | 1891-92. | 1892-3. | 1894-5. |
|------------------------------------------|---------|---------|----------|----------|---------|---------|
| No. of Lectures and Popular Concerts ... | 28      | 70      | 164      | 225      | 235     | 269     |
| No. of Auditors                          | 6,000   | 14,000  | 36,000   | 40,000   | 60,000  | 78,000  |

This table includes besides Lectures, popular Concerts and Recitations given by the best artists and *litterateurs* of Vienna. In 1893-4, out of the 63,000 auditors 19,000 attended the Concerts and 14,000 the Recitations; 30,000 attended the scientific lectures, but this number rose to 42,000 in the following year. The average attendances are at Lectures 100-300 persons, at Recitations 400, at Concerts 500.

In the winter of 1890-91 the lectures began to be arranged on the English University Extension System. Previous to this year the lectures were free, and given by various professors; they began now to be arranged in courses given by the same professor, who received an average honorarium of five fl. a lecture. A class following the lecture was established, as in England, together with weekly papers, and an examination held by the lecturer.† The

\* "*Handbuch des Volksbildungswesens*," by Dr. Eduard Reyer. Stuttgart, 1896. Page 39.

† The Examination is now however conducted by a specially appointed examiner. (Dr. Reyer, "*Handbuch des Volksbildungswesens*.") Page 111. Note 1.

principle of giving the lectures free was, however, still adhered to, and after a time the undertaking began to suffer for want of funds.

The movement came to be directly associated with the Vienna University in 1894. The Senate of the University and various professors used their influence with the Government to obtain a grant for these popular courses, and in the budget of 1894, the sum of 6,000 gulden was voted for this purpose. (1) The courses in direct connection with the University are arranged by a committee of professors and *Privatdozenten* chosen by the Senate and the Faculties. The teachers must avoid all disturbing religious, political and social questions. The lectures are held on week-day evenings at 7½ o'clock and a class follows each lecture. An entrance fee of one krone is required for courses consisting of about six lessons. Short courses are found to meet with more success than long ones. (2)

Among the subjects treated are :—Greek, Roman, German, Austrian and French History; Greek Drama, Goethe's Faust, Shakespeare, Italian Painting, Anatomy, Physiology, Bacteriology, First Help to the Wounded, Hereditary, Nervous and Mental Diseases, Botany, Chemistry, Geology, Engineering, Geometry, Austrian Constitutional Law and Civil Law.\*

About half the audiences belong to the working-classes : women numbered at first a tenth, but have risen to a fourth. The introduction of payment by the students has not permanently affected the attendances, although at first a falling-off was noticeable.

*"Im Jahre 1891-2 waren im Litteraturkurs 197 Hörer eingeschrieben, 1892-3 waren in zwei Parallelklassen 185 Hörer eingetragen. Im folgenden Jahr wird das Schulgeld eingeführt und der Besuch des Litteraturkurses sinkt auf 80, hebt sich aber im Jahre 1894-95 wieder auf 130 ; die Hörer waren nur vorübergehend durch die Gebühr abgeschreckt worden."* †

(1) *Comenius-Blätter*. 1/2, 1896. Page 20.

(2) The "*Bildungsverein*" still continues to arrange for free courses of lectures also, which are given on Sunday afternoons.

\* *Comenius-Blätter*, 1/2, 1896. Page 20.

† "*Handbuch des Volksbildungswesens*," by Dr. Eduard Reyer. Stuttgart, 1896. Page 129, Note 1.

In Vienna, as in other large industrial centres, the people are attracted first by the technical courses, whose immediate usefulness is evident to them; through these they are led to take part in the "humanistic" lectures.

A special feature in the Vienna programme is the series of courses on medical subjects, which are arranged on an extensive scale, and comprise both theoretical and practical teaching. Besides Anatomy, Histology, Physiology, and Bacteriology, courses are given on General Hygiene, First Help to the Wounded and Sicknursing, Hygiene for Women (Midwifery, etc.), Hygiene for Children. The directors of scientific and medical institutions have placed lecture-halls and medical appliances at the disposal of the Society, and Professors have even offered to give the opening lecture of a course.

In Prague, Innsbruck, and Graz popular lectures are now given, and an effort is being made to secure financial help from government.

At Prague a series of lectures on the English University Extension plan were started this year at the German Technical High School.

Since 1893 popular lectures have been given at the Szabad Lyceum. In the year 1893-94, two courses of 8 to 11 lectures were held, and 20 courses of six lectures or less. The University is not connected with the work, but Professors at the High School organise the work and deliver certain lectures. The members pay 20 florins yearly; non-members pay three florins for one course. The lecturer receives five florins for each lecture. In the first year the total expenditure was 2,000 florins. The subjects taught are History, Languages, Art, Literature, Sociology, Law, Natural Science, Medicine, Commerce. As a rule, about 60-70 persons attended each lecture (the commercial classes, however, only 21). Four-fifths of the audiences were women.

Some of the more important courses were :—

|                               |     |     |     |             |
|-------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------------|
| The Rôle of Literature        | ... | ... | ... | 2 lectures. |
| Karl Kísfaldny                | ... | ... | ... | 3 "         |
| History of Hungary since 1848 | ... | ... | ... | 5 "         |
| The English Revolution        | ... | ... | ... | 4 "         |
| History of Art                | ... | ... | ... | 5 ;         |
| The New Hungarian Painters    | ... | ... | ... | 2 "         |
| History of Music              | ... | ... | ... | 4 "         |

## (8) RUSSIA.

In Russia, the popular desire for education is assuming larger and larger proportions. While, 30 years ago, the children of the villages had almost to be forced to attend school, to-day many children have to be turned away for want of room. Russia has still the huge task to accomplish of providing sufficient schools for her children. Nor is this all: "*mit der Gründung einer Schule sei nur halbe Arbeit gethan, denn das Volk dürste auch nach Büchern, welche es lesen wolle; neben der Schule müsse eine Bibliothek bestehen, welche mit dazu angethan sei, dem einfachen Mann in dem fürchterlichen Dunkel zu leuchten, in welchem er seit Anbeginn der Geschichte umherirrt.*"\*

The question of popular education has now been taken up by the *Zemstvos* and also by associations of private individuals. Several of the *Zemstvos*,—as, for example, those of Moscow, Twer, and Smolensk, have done preparatory work in the way of collecting statistics with regard to the number of children of an age to attend school, and estimating the probable necessary cost and the number of new schools required. The *Zemstvos* have also provided in many instances libraries for children and adults; they also purchase the so-called magic-lanterns for the popular lectures which are frequently given in villages and small towns by teachers and others.

In many towns and villages *Volksleshallen* have been organised, which are supported by private individuals and associations. In a great many "*gouvernements*" societies have been formed for the advancement of popular education. These societies establish school and public libraries; they sometimes even found schools and provide for male and female teachers. In some cases they have organised systematic holiday courses for teachers on subjects connected with History, Literature, etc. (This has been done at Nischny-Nowgorod, for example.)

Special mention must be made of the two societies founded at Petersburg and Moscow under the name of "*Comitet Gramotnosti.*" To them are due many hundreds of popular libraries, and a great number of books published at low prices. In the Moscow "*Comité,*" one section worked specially last year in the cause of

\* "*Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen.*" Volume IV. July, 1896. Leipzig. Page 370.

general popular education, and published the result of its labours. The government, however, became suspicious with regard to these societies, and in March last their name was changed into "*Gesellschaften für Volksbildung*," and they were placed under the immediate control of the Minister of Public Instruction. The choice of a president, and the admission of members has now to be sanctioned by the Minister; books, that the societies may wish to publish, must first pass his censure; reading-rooms and school-houses can only be erected according to the wishes of the government, and the members of the societies may visit the institutions they have founded only when no teaching is going on. These societies have thus been reduced to the position of money-collectors for the government; they have no longer any voice in the expenditure of the money. A natural consequence has been that half the members of the Petersburg society have resigned, and the society is in danger of coming to grief."\*

The spread of education is hampered in other ways by the government. While on a visit to the Caucasus, last November, I was struck by the evident desire of the people for more instruction for their children, and their eagerness to send their children to school, if the opportunity was afforded them. This desire is, however, not encouraged by the Russian government, and a more or less extensive spy-system is in vogue to ensure that the school-masters teach nothing subversive to Russian authority. While I was visiting one of the schools, the lessons were interrupted by the entrance of the local stationmaster, who proceeded to put various questions to both teacher and pupils. On my inquiring by what right he thus interrupted the class work, I was informed that he, as well as all other Russian officials, acted as *ex-officio* spy for the government.

Private initiative has done much to advance education in Russia. In many instances private individuals devote themselves, through altruistic motives, to the publishing of good cheap literature for the people in the form of books sold at one kopek (a farthing) each. They have published in this way many Russian classical works, such as those of Pouschkin, Lermontof, Tolstoi, Turgenieff, etc., as well as many books of Natural Science

\* "*Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen.*" Leipzig, July, 1896. Vol. IV. Page 369.

and Agriculture, and even a few on Political Economy and Law. Other individuals again give up their Sundays to the instruction of men, women and young people of the working-classes (artisans, domestics, etc.) in the so-called Sunday Schools. These schools exist in large numbers in the towns; in Moscow there are ten or even more. Not only are reading, writing, and arithmetic taught, but the teacher gives explanatory lectures on Astronomy, Physics, History, Literature, and even something of Social Science. Private donations have been made to the cause, which have in some instances reached a sum of several thousand roubles.

The Universities also interest themselves in the Extension movement and arrange for special popular courses; this has been done at Kasan last winter and at Odessa. Petitions have been sent to the government by several universities with regard to the opening of special courses for women. Two years ago Professor Stebut, of Moscow, organised systematic courses in various branches of Agriculture, which were held on the six weekly festivals preceding Easter, by professors from the Agricultural High School.

The University Extension movement was also imitated two years earlier in the founding of an Association for Home-reading, which is conducted by some 50 or 60 Moscow Professors and Doctors. Every year a programme is published of the reading to be done in various branches of natural and social science. The readers prepare papers which they send in for the remarks of the members. Besides this, the Association publishes a number of translations from works on various topics of general interest. From 20 to 25,000 copies of the programme for the first year were sold. Up to the present about 400 or 500 readers have taken part. A similar society of Professors and men of letters was formed in Petersburg in 1895.

Technical education is well looked after by the government; and a law has lately been passed with regard to commercial education. Among other things, special courses have been arranged for clerks and others engaged in business, in which the subjects taught are political economy, bookkeeping, commercial statistics, etc. The town-councils have founded Sunday and evening classes in technical drawing, elements of geometry, etc., which are supported by private donations or by the State. Merchants and others establish elementary technical schools for workmen, overseers, and masters. One merchant bequeathed a large sum of money (perhaps about a

million roubles) in order to found a number of technical elementary and secondary schools.

The Minister of Agriculture and the *Zemstvos* have also established a number of technical elementary schools in which farm-stewards and estate managers are trained, and in which the children of the richer peasants receive instruction (very few of the latter, however). Some of the *Zemstvos* have arranged special schools with a view to improving technically the house-industry of the peasants. For example, there are lace-making schools for women, some of which are managed by ladies and supported by the *Zemstvos*, and basket-making schools. The latter industry is however generally taught by itinerant professors. In many elementary schools instruction is given in fruit and nursery-gardening.

#### (9) UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Whereas in European countries the desirability of universal popular education is still with many a matter of doubt, public opinion in America has already realised the necessity for and the advantages to be derived from the extension of the educational system. The result of this sentiment has been the provision of higher grade schools for all who wish for an education beyond that provided by the primary school. These higher schools are supported by the general taxpayer, as is the case with School Board education in England. The school tax is far from being an unpopular one, as it is in various European countries.

Mr. J. J. Findlay says, in writing of the American school tax :—

“The common people believe in free high school education; every parent hopes that his own child may be clever enough to be advanced to the high school, and perhaps afterwards to college, and the idea that secondary education is only for the well-to-do gains no foothold.” \*

It may be mentioned that besides the liberal scheme of public education, there are also a large number of schools established and supported by private initiative.

Another proof of the national sentiment in favour of popular education may be found in the almost lavish donations and

\* Report of the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education. Report from America and Canada, by J. J. Findlay. Vol. VII. Page 341.

bequests of men of wealth towards the endowment of colleges, universities, libraries and technical institutes:

As in England and Germany, though perhaps to a less extent, instruction in scientific and technical subjects is gradually being substituted for Latin and Greek. Formerly any step beyond primary education was directed towards preparation for the university, but of late years more attention has been given to meeting the educational needs of youths intended for business or manufacture. It is evident that if this variety in educational demands is to be met, larger sums of money will be constantly required for educational purposes, but, judging from the results of the last few years, there need be little anxiety that the money will be forthcoming.

The existence of large numbers of Home-reading Circles and Associations for private study shows that there is a wide-spread desire among the people at large to do systematic intellectual work. Foremost among these societies may be mentioned the Chatauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. This movement originated with Bishop J. H. Vincent, D.D., about 27 years ago. The first meeting was held in the summer of 1874 at Lake Chatauqua, New York. The plan of the Society was to involve, according to Dr. Vincent, "a course of reading and study covering the principal subjects of the college curriculum, but omitting, of necessity, its drill in languages and mathematics, giving to the English reader an outlook over the field of learning and some acquaintance with the masterpieces of literature, ancient and modern, employing hand-books and compendiums for the mastery of outlines and appointing more extensive work to be read—a course which the individual could pursue alone, if necessary, yet adapted for associated study."

Mr. George E. Vincent stated in 1889 that during the ten years since the organisation of the society nearly 150,000 had been members.

As an outcome of the Chatauqua Circle many local reading clubs have been started in various parts of the country, which have gradually paved the way for the introduction of the University Extension System. According to Dr. Herbert B. Adams, of John Hopkins University—"the first conscious attempts to introduce English university extension methods into this country were made in 1887 by individuals connected with the John Hopkins University." A course of 12 lectures was given in Buffalo in the

year 1887-88 by Dr. Edward W. Bemis, a graduate of John Hopkins, on "Economic Questions of the Day." The average attendance at these lectures was 250, of which number more than 200 stayed to hear the class discussion. Next year the course was repeated in other towns, and Mr. E. C. Lunt, a graduate of Harvard, gave a course at the Buffalo Library on American political history. Great success attended the courses in American History and Economic and Social Science which were given in Baltimore to audiences of from 150 to 1,000. A three-years' course of study in English History was successfully carried out by more than 1,000 students, who had already completed four years of study in the Chatauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

In 1890 the movement extended itself to Pennsylvania. In February of that year a number of leading educators of Philadelphia and some of its most public-spirited and influential citizens met by the invitation of Dr. William Pepper, of the University of Pennsylvania, to consider the question of University Extension. The scheme met with universal favour, and aid was given by several of the neighbouring universities. The Pennsylvanian Society for the Extension of University Teaching was formally organised in June, 1890, with Dr. Pepper as president, and has had a career of uninterrupted success. The secretary was sent to study the system in Oxford, Cambridge and London, and on his return, drew up a report on the English University Extension Movement, which was adopted as a plan of organisation. The first course of lectures was delivered at Roxborough, a suburb of Philadelphia, in November of the same year, the subject being Chemistry. Success attended the venture from the first, and before the close of the season over 40 courses of lectures on literature, history and advanced mathematics were delivered to a total attendance of more than 60,000 persons.

Very great encouragement and aid was given to the movement by the participation and advice of some prominent English educationalists, who were acquainted with the origin and development of the University Extension Movement in England. The interest kindled in Philadelphia soon caused an overwhelming demand for the establishment of local centres. It was then resolved to form a National Society, which was accordingly done in December of the same year.

In almost every state of the Union various societies and organisations are labouring with pronounced success for the cause. The

University of the State of New York has made it an important factor of its work, and arranges for full courses of ten lectures each, for which elaborate syllabuses are prepared. The new University of Chicago has included University Extension among its pronounced objects, and has placed it in charge of a special faculty distinct from the University proper, and yet in every sense an organic part of it. The administrative and teaching staffs are appointed by the trustees of the university council, members of its faculty give lectures in the class-rooms, while professors and instructors from the university give courses of lectures in each department of the extension teaching.

## CHAPTER III.

### CONCLUDING REMARKS.

It will be seen from the foregoing descriptions that efforts are now being made, in the most civilised countries in the world, to satisfy the widespread desire of the "producing classes" for intellectual development. That such a desire exists cannot seriously be questioned. Compulsory education has already begun to develop the latent faculties of the uneducated, and to whet the appetite for further knowledge; nor can it be doubted that attempts will be made to acquire the desired knowledge, even through imperfect channels, if adequate effort to furnish it be not made on the part of the better-educated, and possibly on the part of the State.

By way of illustration of the kind of instruction imparted by ignorant teachers to young working-men and women, I may mention an opportunity I had, while in Berlin some four years ago, of attending a Social-Democratic Workmen's Evening School. The subject of the lecture was *Logic*; and placed upon the black-board were some 25 words for definition and discussion. Among the number were "*Ethics*," "*Philosophy*," "*National Economy*." Ethics, the lecturer described as the "*Lehre*" which teaches the right of retaliation for injuries received. Philosophy was stigmatised as merely a branch of Religion, and as such, was not deemed worthy of further discussion. National Economy was stoutly affirmed to be the science which proves that "*der Arbeiter Sklave ist und Sklave sein muss.*"<sup>(1)</sup> Upon this pitifully inadequate definition followed a lively discussion. The validity of the definitions was not questioned by the audience, which was composed, as I ascertained later in the evening, of young provincial workmen in quest of instruction. My informant assured me that the "Berliners" did not trouble to undertake a thorough examination of such questions, as their time was occupied in attending political meetings.

(1) "The working-man is a slave and must remain a slave."

This example will serve to illustrate the kind of instruction likely to be imparted to ignorant seekers after enlightenment, where those in a position to give sound information remain inactive, either from lack of sympathy with the efforts of the ignorant to obtain knowledge, or out of mistrust as to the possible results of the development of greater intelligence on the part of workmen. Progress, however, often presents itself as the choice between two evils. Between the possible evil of discontent arising from increased enlightenment, and the unquestionable evil of the dissemination of false and misleading ideas, there can be no hesitation. Truth is the only possible antidote to untruth, and it is better that any social reform which may become necessary should correspond to a desire proceeding from correct information, than to one which proceeds from erroneous conceptions. The creation of a class of intelligent workmen would of necessity introduce a new factor into the social problem, but such a factor cannot be considered as rendering more difficult the social situation—unless one is prepared to maintain that ignorance is preferable to enlightenment, a proposition running directly counter to the spirit of evolutionary philosophy.

An inevitable correlative of the increased intelligence of the working-man is an increase in his wants, and such wants must be satisfied, if the harmony of society is to be maintained. These wants will be met to a great extent by the result of an increased technical knowledge—that is, a larger output of national work, which will render an increase of wages possible.

Technical education is now everywhere acknowledged to be of the highest importance, and is receiving an ever-increasing share of public attention in all civilised countries. We may take the case of Russia as an example.

Although the absolutistic government of Russia strives as far as possible, in self-preservation, to place obstacles in the way of popular enlightenment, yet, to render at all possible the development of industry, she is compelled to further the cause of technical education to a considerable degree, in order to satisfy the industrial and agricultural requirements of the time and to enhance the capabilities of the Russian producing classes.

Until recently, all technically qualified workmen and foremen were foreigners, and in order to make herself independent in this respect of foreign labour, the Russian government found it

necessary to lend all possible aid to the advance of technical education. We rely for facts on the last official Report of the Russian Ministry of Finance, which was published on the occasion of the Pan-Russian Exhibition at Nischni-Nowgorod.\*

In the year 1893 there were in Russia

|       |              |                 |
|-------|--------------|-----------------|
| 1     | Agricultural | High School.    |
| 8     | „            | Middle Schools. |
| 59    | „            | Lower Schools.  |
| <hr/> |              |                 |
| 68    |              |                 |

In 1896 the total number of agricultural schools had risen to 115.

Special societies have been formed in Kasan, Wjatka, Perm and other towns, with the view of improving the level of technical education in house-industries; and two branches of the Imperial Russian Technical Society have been established in Nischni-Nowgorod and Moscow. In particular, the technical training of weavers who work at home has been advanced by the Ministry, who have sent trained teachers and experienced foremen into several of the Departments, such as Kursk, Wjatka, Pskof, Cherson, Perm, etc. In certain districts of these Departments model workshops have been opened.

Similar care has been taken by the Ministry with regard to the training of potters, dyers, workers in metals, etc.

There exist in Russia at the present day 221 lower technical schools, in which of late years an average of 12,521 adult workmen and 10,820 boys are trained annually.

It is evident, therefore, that when a government like the Russian, opposed to all general popular education, favours technical training to such an extent, such training must be looked upon as absolutely necessary to the development of the producing capabilities of the people.

During the last twenty-five years there have been enormous changes in industry. The price of almost all machine-made products has fallen by 30 per cent.,† the reason of which is the great developments produced by science, which have to a considerable extent dislocated labour. In distribution, the facilities which have

\* "The Producing Powers of Russia" (in Russian). St. Petersburg. 1896. Section I.—pages 75-86. Section XI.—pages 14-15. Section XIX. —pages 83-92.

† See speech by Lord Playfair, quoted in "Record of Technical and Secondary Education." Jan., 1896. Page 124.

been made in the last 25 years have made extraordinary alterations. The improvements which have taken place in the steam-engine, especially in steam-navigation, by the invention of triplex engines, etc., have produced changes almost fabulous. The American flour in a quartern loaf can be brought 4,000 to 5,000 miles at the cost of one halfpenny. These changes have made the markets of the world one market. The new conditions and methods which are constantly arising require that the intelligence of the producing classes should be developed, so that they may readily adjust themselves to such changes of economic circumstances.

Technical education is not however a panacea for all the evils we are suffering from. No doubt, the workman who receives a good technical education will become more valuable as a producer, and as a result of his increased economic value, he will receive higher wages and be obliged to work shorter hours. We cannot however stop here. Human nature has other than material wants; and even in the satisfying of his material wants the workman requires a more extended education to teach him what makes for his own best interests. When he understands the value of hygiene, better cooking, and temperance in spirit drinking, he will lay out his earnings more judiciously and with a better knowledge of what material comfort means.

In the interest of harmonious development, which is the end of all education, broadly conceived, we must provide a liberal education on humanistic lines, which will develop the moral and ethical side of character. Apart from the practical work of life, humanistic studies tend to good citizenship by enlarging the mental horizon, by stimulating the interest in history and by quickening the sense of civic rights and duties. In the increased leisure time which, as we have seen, will fall to the share of the working man, he can make use of means already existing and unused—such as free libraries, etc. These increased educational opportunities will do much to combat the materialistic and irreligious influence of the present social democratic teaching.

Unfortunately, although the need for technical education seems to be fully granted in all civilised countries, the need for a higher humanistic teaching is less universally recognised. In England, for example, while the technical side of local colleges receives liberal support, the humanistic side, on the contrary, often suffers from lack of funds.

In contending against the merely utilitarian spirit in education, of which this fact is an evidence, there seems to be only one remedy that can go to the root of the matter, and that is, a clear perception diffused throughout society of the true meaning and end of education—not merely the development and discipline of a special faculty, but the harmonious training of all the faculties, moulding character and forming not the *expert* merely, but the *man*. An education that enriches life, that stirs the imagination, that clears the mind of narrowness and prejudice, that trains the critical faculty to form sound judgments, is the popular education that is needed.

There is one difficulty which must be considered in dealing with the question of increased education for the working-classes. One must admit that there exists at the present time a tendency on the part of the working-man to seek other employment than manual labour. A question with regard to this tendency was put by the English Royal Commission of 1894 on Secondary Education to leading educationalists all over the world. Their answers are instructive as showing the causes underlying this tendency. They vary of course in the various countries, but the main cause indicated by the majority of the replies would seem to be found in the small esteem in which hand-labour is held by the civilised societies of to-day. In what direction may a possible remedy be sought?

If we examine the industrial history of the Middle Ages, we find that manual labour held a far more honourable position than it does to-day. This is probably mainly due to the fact that the social system of 400 years ago, so far as the workman was concerned depended upon his guild, while the political system was based as a rule upon the combined guilds. Thus the union which organised the craftsmen and their work, which also brought them together for social purposes, was practically the same as that which directed the municipal government of the city. Manual labour was considered as a pious duty towards the citizens, as a public function (*amt*) as honourable as any other. The workman produced for a brotherhood of men who knew each other, knew the technics of the craft, and in naming the price of each product, could appreciate the skill displayed in its fabrication or the labour bestowed on it.\*

\* Mrs. J. R. Green. "*Town Life in the Fifteenth Century*." Vol. II. Chaps. 5, 8 and 10. London, 1894.

If hand-labour once held such an honourable place, it is surely possible, through a more rational system of education, to rehabilitate it in the general esteem. The increasing attention paid by the various nations to the extension of technical training in all classes seems calculated to bring about a more intelligent appreciation of the value of hand-labour from both the economic and moral standpoint, and to heighten its dignity in public opinion.

Probably the chief source of the disesteem in which hand-labour is held at the present time is the facility with which wealth is acquired owing to the recent development of industrial and technical science. Large numbers of individuals, by speculation or by lucky investment, have succeeded in acquiring rapidly considerable wealth, and are tempted to look down on those who adopt slower and more methodical means of obtaining a livelihood. Such persons consider themselves to rise in the social scale with every fresh accession of wealth which enables them to gratify their sentiment of vanity and superiority, and at the same time to make others feel a sense of personal inferiority. The evil effect of this is apparent; it renders others discontented with the slower means of acquiring a livelihood. The only corrective for this false view of life lies in the education of public opinion to appreciate manual labour as one of the real sources of wealth, directly or indirectly, and which places technical and scientific education on a level of esteem with the exclusively classical education.

Another phase of the same problem is the continuous emigration of the country population to the towns. It is not uncommon in the neighbourhood of towns for the parents of country children to send them into the town to school, where they have the advantage of probably better teaching. Such children almost invariably in the sequel forsake a country for a town life.\* This difficulty might be solved by the establishment of country *Volkshochschulen*, such as have been described in the case of Denmark. In such schools the agricultural population receives a combined scientific and humanistic education, which, as experience has proved, does not unfit the pupils for, or render them dissatisfied with a country life. This effect is obtained chiefly by the personal influence of the teachers, whose aim is to develop the character through

\* "Report of Royal Commission on Secondary Education." London, 1895. Vol. V. Pages 519-646.

education, rather than to load the minds of their pupils with information.

The idea of the Middle Ages with regard to hand labour, which has been lost in the "*Sturm und Drang*" of the competitive system of the present century, must be revived, and educators must not neglect to inculcate the moral duty of the individual in the performance of socially valuable work.

The task of the State with regard to education is a constantly changing one. In these days of international competition, where the race for the world's markets will necessarily be gained by the nation of most intelligent and best-organised individuals, no government can afford to stand aside or to neglect its duty in this important sphere. The government should, in so far as it is possible, study and seek to comprehend the tendency of the time ; and where financial aid is given, care must be taken that the efforts of a healthy private initiative are not interfered with. As has been shown in Chapter II. of this work, the governments of various countries have only granted aid to schemes of *Fortbildung*, after a certain measure of success has already been achieved, sufficient to prove that the schools corresponded to a real desire on the part of the people. Assistance has then been given, as a rule, to the extent of about *half* the expenses of the schools. This attitude on the part of the State is, in our opinion, the correct one, as it, at the same time, tests the existence of a real desire for such schools, and tends to ensure their economical management on the part of the local authorities.

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